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ABSTRACT

The 10 articles in this 1997 issue cover a wide range of research. Each of the articles addresses one of the seven questions: "What do we know about leadership capacity and how is it built?" "How do we work with those enrolled in leadership preparation programs to enable these future leaders to build leadership capacity in schools?" "How do we approach the work of shifting power and authority relationship in schools?" "Are there examples of resilient schools that thrive despite 'tough' issues?" "When do schools 'self-organize' and what are the indicators by which we know this? and How do we build a 'leadership consciousness' among all educators?" "What promising strategies promote this form of collaboration, especially among teacher educators?" and "How do we reconceptualize The articles on teaching are: "Building Leadership Capacity in Schools: Implications for Administrative Preparation" (Linda Lambert); "Emerging Constructs of Power: Teacher Beliefs Embedded in Practice with Implications for School Leadership" (Michele Acker-Hocevar, Patricia A. Bauch, and Barbara T. Berman); "Reconceptualizing Leadership in Culturally Diverse Settings: A Learning Community Model" (Mark K. McCullough, Magaly Lavadenz, and Shane P. Martin); "Building Leadership Capacity by Writing and Reflecting on Stories of Practice" (Arnold B. Danzig); Educational Administration Jeopardy: If Constructivist Leadership Is the Answer, What Is the Question?" (Dean S.T. Cascadden). The articles on program development are: "Preparing for the Principalship: Lessons from Other Professions" (John D. Caresh); "Practicing Leadership: Differential Effects from Administrative Field Placements" (Janet Chrispeels); "Unleashing the Power of the World Wide Web in Educational Administration" (Linda C. Orozco); "Induction Plan Assessment: Relating Academic Preparation to Performance Skills" (Donald G. Coleman and R. C. Adams); and "A Constructivity Approach to the Authentic Assessment of Educational Leadership Students" (Jose A. Lopez and Marianne Camp). (RJM)

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Educational Leadership and Administration

Teaching and Program Development

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The Annual Journal of the California Association of Professors of Educational Administration

Volume 9, Fall 1997

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Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development

The Journal of the California Association of Professors of Educational Administration **Volume 9, 1997**

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Dedication

This 1997 issue of
Edu tional Leadership and Administration:
eaching and Program Development
is dedicated to the memory of

Jim Parker
California State University, Dominguez Hills

Jim was President of CAPEA in 1992-1993 and we miss him.

Join CAPEA

Membership Form

The California Association of Professors of Educational Administration membership is open to all individuals involved in the preparation of school administrators and the study of the educational administration field. Annual membership dues are $30. Members of CAPEA receive issues of *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development* as part of their membership.

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Foreword

Sr. Kieran Vaughan
President, 1996-1997,
California Association of Professors of Educational Administration
Mount St. Mary's College, Los Angeles, California

The significant activities of "**Naming**" and "**Questioning**" are two of the first distinguishing characteristics of humankind. Naming and questioning may well serve as analogies for critical components of our profession as professors of educational administration—naming as a metaphor for the knowledge base; questioning as the metaphor for constructivist approaches leading to new conceptualizations of educational leadership and leadership capacity. I will frame this Foreword to our newly-named journal by means of these metaphors.

This 9th volume of the journal of the California Association of Professors of Educational Administration (CAPEA) is the first published with its new title, *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development*. **Naming** and, similarly, renaming is not taken lightly. The re-titling of our CAPEA journal was no exception. The new name suggests the broader geographic locations of contributors and readers of the journal. Between 1994 and 1996, contributing authors from states other than California increased from ten to almost 50 percent. This expanded dialogue offers all of us the opportunity to be in touch with ideas and approaches to educational leadership and admin-

istration across the United States. We look forward to the increasingly rich and varied dialogue that this geographic diversity offers.

In addition, the new name reflects an expanded theme. In this 1997 volume, we find articles which address the CAPEA journal's founding vision by "...[providing] the national audience of professors of educational administration with useable research and practical ideas for the improvement of educational administration programs," (Wildman, *The Journal of CAPEA*, 1996, vol. 8, p. 5), as well as articles which address "[n]ew issues which go beyond the limits of the founding theme...." (Cohn, Paull, & Orozco, *ibid.*, p. 7).

The articles in this edition were submitted in response to a series of **questions** posed in the 1996 volume. Linda Lambert's invitation to discourse on Leadership Capacity culminated by questioning us in seven areas (*ibid.*, pp. 9-10). These seven questions will serve as the guide to the 1997 edition.

In the opening article, Lambert responds to her own challenge and shares her current thinking on each of the seven questions, providing an overview and context, as well as a framework for continued questioning in a "cycle of inquiry."

1. What do we know about leadership capacity and how is it built? Arnold B. Danzig gives us a way to learn about leadership through the writing of and reflection on stories of practice, an approach that brings together theory and practice and provides a basis for constructivist learning.

2. How do we work with those enrolled in leadership preparation programs to enable them to build leadership capacity in schools? John C. Daresh looks at lessons that can be learned from other professions, especially those in which the preparations seem to include a balanced perspective on areas of technical skill, socialization, and self-awareness.

The role of administrative field placements was studied by Janet Chrispeels. The report of her study encourages the continued search to find ways to provide practice in educational leadership and administration in real school settings.

3. How do we approach the work of shifting power and authority relationships in schools? As well as creatively addressing an aspect of this edition's theme, Constructivist Leadership, Dean S.T. Cascadden presents insights based on experience, personal research, and the literature on the challenges involved in shifting power and authority relationships. His identification of the potential dichotomy

between empowering and culture building in an organization provides a critical context for preparing future educational leaders to pursue either, and especially both, of these ideals.

4. & 5. Are there examples of resilient schools that thrive despite "tough" issues? When do schools "self-organize" and what are the indicators by which we know? Though exploration of these questions may be critical to the consideration of "leadership capacity," none of the articles addressed them directly. Starting points for "answers" are implied in several. I'll leave the "Where?" and "How?" as questions for the reader.

6. How do we build a "leadership consciousness" among all educators? What promising strategies promote this form of collaboration, especially among teacher educators? Michele Acker-Hocevar, Patricia A. Bauch, and Barbara T. Berman explore this question by asking teachers themselves to share their perspectives and beliefs about the exercise of power and influence in the schools. Included are suggested ways that school administrators might use teachers' views more effectively—an invitation to all of us to work collaboratively.

Donald G. Coleman and R.C. Adams provide a practical example of building leadership consciousness by describing an induction plan assessment for entry-level administrators beginning their advanced (second-tier) professional preparation, which involved the newly appointed administrator, a university faculty member, and a school district representative. Three components of the induction plan assessment, implemented at California State University, Fresno, include use of an assessment center, a comprehensive knowledge-based test, and a recent school district performance review.

7. How do we reconceptualize leadership and school change? Reconceptualization of leadership and school change must include concepts of cultural diversity and technology. Mary K. McCullough, Magaly Lavadenz, and Shane P. Martin challenge us to conceptualize both systemic reform and empowering leadership by means of sociocultural theory. Their Learning Community Model exemplifies the use of questions, collaboration, agency linkages, assessment and research, all aimed at addressing the needs of *all* children.

Technology, represented by the Internet's World Wide Web (WWW) and its necessary applicability to educational administration programs, is described and analyzed by Linda Orozco. The truly exponential expansion of WebSites by 480 percent between 1993 and 1995 suggests the kind of changes, or reconceptualizations, needed in the area of

educational leadership and administration. This article invites us to participate in the Web to energize and re-vitalize our programs in educational administration.

Our final article by Jose Lopez and Marianne Camp serves as a culminating reflection on the theme. The challenge of measuring leadership capacity is acknowledged, and then addressed by describing the components of an assessment process, and its relationship to constructivist principles, as developed and implemented at California State University, Hayward.

This volume's book review by Rita King is also in keeping with the theme. *Who Will Save Our Schools: Teachers as Constructivist Leaders*, by Linda Lambert, Michelle Collay, Mary E. Dietz, Karen Kent, and Anna Ershler Richert, addresses the building of leadership capacity. Rita's review highlights the book's interrelated themes, including learning communities, constructivist leadership, and systemic change. This perceptive and insightful review, together with the questions raised, invites an "as soon as possible" reading of the book so that we can embark on our own "cycle of inquiry."

It is a particular honor to offer the Foreword to this journal of CAPEA—now presented to you to enjoy as *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development*—dedicated to Jim Parker, an esteemed colleague and consummate professional. The issue concludes with a call for papers for 1998 on a most important topic—diversity.

I close this Foreword with a special thank you: to each of you who will read the articles, relate the information to your own knowledge base, generate questions, and use the outcomes for personal and professional development and program improvement; to those who took time to write and re-write articles accepted for publication; and to each of the authors who contributed to making this edition the "most contributed to" in the journal's history.

May our willingness to submit our work to our colleagues continue to be a source of professional growth, personal satisfaction, and a model of self-assessment for our students.

A Note from the Editors

Our New Name

This is the first edition of our journal under its new name—*Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development*. The response to our call for papers was quite impressive; we received more submissions than ever before. We would like to extend our appreciation to our large Editorial Review Board (see list on inside front cover of this issue), who willingly gave their time to review manuscripts. Their input was invaluable.

As we continue to publish the journal under its new theme and name, it is our intent to include articles that are timely, relevant, and that uphold the highest academic standards of scholarship. With this focus in mind, we look forward to continuing the ongoing dialogue on leadership, administration, teaching, and program development.

Focus For The 1998 Edition

The upcoming theme for the 1998 meeting of the American Educational Research Association (AERA) centers on "Diversity and Citizenship in Multicultural Societies." Because of the many possibilities this topic poses and its implications and challenges for educational administration, we have decided to align the focus of the 1998 issue of *Educational Leadership and Administration: Teaching and Program Development* to AERA's theme.

How do we address such topics as diversity, classism, advantage, culture, and gender? More importantly, how do we structure our educational administration programs to prepare and to train leaders who

possess the skills, knowledge, and courage to confront these issues? While the journal always accepts articles on topics other than the focus for the year, we encourage prospective contributors to reflect on and consider this compelling theme.

—**Robert C. Pauli**, Senior Editor
Pepperdine University
—**Linda C. Orozco**, Editor
University of California, Irvine
and Coastline Community College
—**Marilyn Korostoff**, Associate Editor
California State University, Long Beach

Building Leadership Capacity in Schools:

Implications for Administrative Preparation

Linda Lambert
California State University, Hayward

Introduction

For our last journal edition, I was invited to issue an invitation to discourse for the 1997 edition. It was entitled, "Leadership Capacity: An Invitation to Discourse." This article is being written in response to that invitation. The invitation challenged us to think differently about some key assumptions regarding the preparation of school leaders:

> ...leadership capacity-building refers to shifts in power and authority in schools, to broad based leadership among faculty, parents, and students, as well as administrators. It demands both personal and organizational learning and active participation. Leadership capacity implies a focus of leadership that creates more buoyant and resilient schools and the capacity of those schools to surface and solve tough problems, to ride out community crisis, and to stay afloat when a favored principal or key teachers leave. (Lambert, 1996, pp. 9-10)

While I am not proposing one singular definition for the concept of "leadership capacity building" in this writing, I will define it as "broad-based, skillful participation in the work of leadership." "Broad-based"

refers to who is at the table—teachers, administrators, parents, students, community members, district personnel, university faculty. Are the essential partners in the school community involved in substantive and important ways? "Skillful" refers to the depth of leadership skills held by large numbers of participants. Leadership capacity can be seen as a function of these two dimensions (see Figure 1). Below under question 2, Figure 1 will be further explained.

In this article, I will respond to the questions posed in the invitation last year. The questions represented genuine queries about the nature and work of building leadership capacity. Questions, as you know, have an interesting effect on the human mind. They tend to subconsciously guide what we observe and see in our work; they become a template for thinking about our practice. The responses to the questions below represent my current thinking about these issues. Next year, I will know much more and, undoubtedly, think somewhat differently.

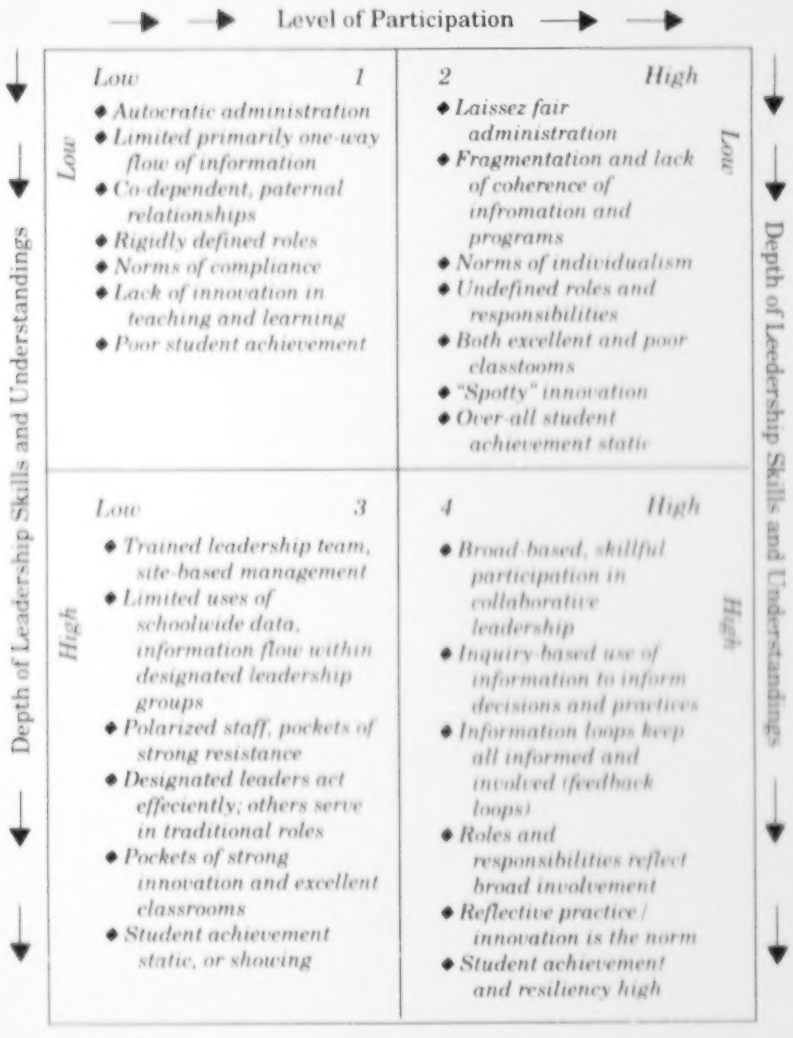
1. What else do we know about leadership capacity and how it is built? What are the understandings, skills and knowledge required by this approach?

We know that "leadership capacity" is an extension of three decades of work in "capacity building." Capacity building refers to the ability of a school to solve its own problems, confront difficult issues, and bounce back in spite of changing pressures and personnel. (Note: In some of the literature, "capacity-building" refers to readiness to adopt an innovation; this is not the definition under consideration here.) What is rarely acknowledged is that the understanding, skills, and knowledge embedded in these behaviors are leadership skills, and that they cannot be possessed by only a few members of the community. Capacity in organizations inherently refers to broad based involvement as essential for developing and sustaining a resilient community.

Figure 1 displays four quadrants of descriptors related to leadership capacity. Each quadrant addresses the same set of descriptors—conditions that are vital to leadership capacity since they are the conditions found in self-renewing schools. These descriptors include:

A. Broad based, skillful participation in collaborative leadership (the definition of leadership capacity building);
B. Inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice;
C. Roles and responsibilities that reflect broad involvement;
D. Reflective practice/innovation as the norm; and
E. High student achievement and resiliency.

Figure 1
Leadership Capacity Matrix
Center for Educational Leadership
California State University, Hayward


Level of Participation
Depth of Leadership Skills and Understandings
Depth of Leadership Skills and Understandings
Low
High
Low
High
Low 1
Autocratic administration
Limited primarily one-way flow of information
Co-dependent, paternal relationships
Rigidly defined roles
Norms of compliance
Lack of innovation in teaching and learning
Poor student achievement
2 High
Laissez fair administration
Fragmentation and lack of coherence of infromation and programs
Norms of individualism
Undefined roles and responsibilities
Both excellent and poor classtooms
"Spotty" innovation
Over-all student achievement static
Low 3
Trained leadership team, site-based management
Limited uses of schoolwide data, information flow within designated leadership groups
Polarized staff, pockets of strong resistance
Designated leaders act effeciently; others serve in traditional roles
Pockets of strong innovation and excellent classrooms
Student achievement static, or showing
4 High
Broad-based, skillful participation in collaborative leadership
Inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practices
Information loops keep all informed and involved (feedback loops)
Roles and responsibilities reflect broad involvement
Reflective practice / innovation is the norm
Student achievement and resiliency high

Each of these descriptors in Figure 1 are defined as a function of two axes: broad based participation and skillful leadership. In Quadrant 1, both the breadth of participation and the skillfulness among leaders is limited. The resultant conditions are often an autocratic, paternal environment characterized by low information flow. It should be noted that while such a school can make short term gains in student standardized achievement, these gains are short-lived. In Quadrant 2 of Figure 1, high participation that is unskilled in leading can characterize an individualistic, fragmented environment (more often observed in high schools). Quadrant 3—high skill among a few participants—is often the direction taken by reforms. A few people may be trained, often superficially, to function as a leadership team. However, unless these skills also include information feedback loops and engaging others in the work of leadership, strongly polarized cultures can result. Leadership team members burnout as they continually encounter resistence from peers. High leadership capacity—and self-renewing schools—require both broad-based participation and skillful leadership (See Quadrant 4).

In order to describe the understanding, skills, and knowledge needed to create high leadership capacity, Quadrant 4 descriptors suggest the following:

A. *Broad-based, skillful participation in collaborative leadership:*
   1. Establish highly representative governance groups, and inclusive whole group and small group working arrangements.
   2. Educate others in leadership skills and understandings, particularly in how to work together to develop a shared purpose, group process, communication, inquiry, change, collaborative planning, conflict management, problem solving, and understanding the learning of adults.
   3. Communicate through action and words a reconception of leadership; engage participants in experiencing leading as facilitating the learning of community members.

B. *Inquiry-based use of information to inform decisions and practice:*
   1. Educate, practice, and engage others in a "cycle of inquiry" characteristic of self-renewing schools. Such practice includes reflection, dialogue, question-posing, inquiry (including uses of data), construction of new meaning and knowledge, and action.
   2. Develop plans and schedules for the creation of common time for dialogue and reflection. Advocate to community and political groups the essential nature of professional time.
   3. Educate for and practice the identification and discovery of information, including: disaggregation of school and classroom data, examination of student work, and action research.

4. Design and implement a communication system that keeps all informed and involved and accumulates and reinterprets feedback as it moves through the school. Develop mechanisms and strategies for integrating feedback into the decision-making processes.

C. *Roles and responsibilities reflect broad involvement:*

1. Work with staff in the school and district, as well as community members, to continually re-examine and broaden their roles and responsibilities. The goal is to enable each participant to take responsibility for the classroom, school, community, and profession.
2. Observe and be sensitive to indicators that participants are performing outside of traditional roles.
3. As roles change, develop strategies for strengthening relationships and learning.
4. Develop expectations and strategies for insuring that participants share responsibility for the implementation of school community agreements (rather than leave this critical task up to the formal leader).

D. *Reflective practice/innovation is the norm:*

1. Insure that the cycle of inquiry and time schedules involve a continual reflective phase.
2. Encourage individual and group entrepreneurship by providing access to resources, personnel, time, and outside networks.
3. Support innovation without expectations for early success.
4. Form and/or encourage collaborative innovation.
5. Engage innovators in developing their own criteria for monitoring, assessment and accountability regarding their work.

E. *Student Achievement and resiliency are high:*

1. Work with the school community to establish challenging and humane expectations and standards.
2. Design, monitor, and assess curriculum, instruction, and performance-based assessment processes that insure that all children learn. Provide systematic feedback to children and families; receive feedback from families. Engage staff in the processes as co-leaders.
3. Redesign (see above) roles and structures to enable the school to develop and sustain resiliency in children (*e.g.*, teacher as coach/counselor/mentor).
4. Ensure that the cycle of inquiry within the school is informed by evidence from performance-based assessment of children and programs.

2. How do we work with those who enroll in leadership preparation programs to enable them to build leadership capacity in schools?

Our candidates need to experience and learn several conceptual frames in order to work with the understandings, skills, and knowledge described above. Whether they are consciously building leadership capacity or just seeking to create a "good school," certain conceptual shifts are essential. These concepts include at least the following understandings:

- The *concept of leadership* must be redefined in order to be able to disconnect it from role, position, and formal authority. Leadership can be understood as the reciprocal processes (rather than the traits of an individual) that enable participants (not leaders and followers) in a community to work toward a shared purpose. These "processes" are the learning processes described above. (Lambert, Walker, Zimmerman, Cooper, Lambert, Gardner, Ford-Slack, 1995)

- *Power and authority* as currently situated in our hierarchical systems must be redistributed. This redistribution of power requires a redefinition of the roles and responsibilities of everyone involved.

- *Human learning* as constructivist. Learning theory, brain research, and natural systems understandings affirm how humans learn. Children and adults must construct their own meaning and knowledge and do it together in caring communities.

- *Change* is systemic, connected, natural for human beings. Individuals resist changes that are imposed upon them and embrace changes that evolve from their own learning. This shift will require a confrontation and reconsideration of many old myths.

- A *central work* of all community participants is to ask critical questions and to inquire into practice in order to improve the learning of all children and adults.

3. If we are to shift power and authority relationships in schools, how do we more directly and effectively approach this work?

We must design preparation programs that exemplify reciprocal, equitable, and caring relationships among students and students and faculty. We believe that this best occurs in sustained communities that are often called "cohorts." After five years, more than 70 percent of our

graduates at California State University, Hayward report that they still maintain collegial relationships with the educators who were in their cohorts.

Within the curriculum, power and authority must be addressed directly, including confronting one's own relationship to power and conflict. Communication and conflict resolution skills must be developed. In our introductory part of the cohort, candidates engage in extensive self-assessment. The majority of candidates describe themselves as fearful or apprehensive about conflict, a condition that disables leaders and disconnects them from their own capacities to challenge current power and authority structures and negotiate more equitable and reciprocal environments in schools and districts.

Further, the conceptual shifts described in number two above are essential for professors as well as candidates and future leaders. It goes without saying that we cannot teach that which we do not believe or understand.

4. Do we have examples of resilient schools—for instance, schools where principals leave or tough issues threaten the very fiber of the school, yet they survive?

Fortunately we do. Perhaps the most renown is Central Park East in Harlem and many of the Professional Development Schools. There are Fairdale High School in Louisville, Kentucky; San Jose Middle School in Novato, California; James Lick Middle School in San Francisco; and Oceana High School in Oceana, California (and many of California's SB 1274 schools).

What others can you name? Consider schools that have thrived and sustained improvements in spite of a changing of principals, superintendents or external pressures.

5. At what point do schools start to self-organize? What are the indicators, and how do we account for this phenomenon?

Staff in schools begin to suggest other ways of getting work done—to self-organize—when the shared leadership in a school reaches a critical point, sometimes among a few trusted colleagues. Wheatley (1995) points out that three factors are vital in this transformation: the development of relationships, information flow, and an alteration in self-perception. As staff perceive themselves as leaders with power and informal authority; form collaborative relationships to talk about the work of teaching and learning; and exchange, create, and receive honest

and timely information, a dynamic occurs within the context of dialogue. This momentum and dynamic can lead, often quickly, to efforts to self-organize. Teachers, particularly, suggest full day retreats, study groups, houses, academic paths, new schedules.

This phenomenon is a systemic process and event arising from the feedback system that alters self-concept, specifically, relationships with others. When self-concept, both as an individual and collectively as a school, changes—new work becomes possible, new questions arise. A high school in an affluent district in which almost all of their students go to respected universities can begin to ask, "Do we make any difference in these students lives? Could they be challenged to think critically, to create new ideas, to develop a consciousness about social justice?" Such thoughts require a shift away from, "If it ain't broke, don't fix it...look at our SATs, we're doing great."

6. How do we build a "leadership consciousness" among all educators? Can this be done without close cooperation with teacher educators? What promising strategies promote this form of collaboration?

Such consciousness requires an alteration both laterally and vertically in university preparation programs. First, we must work closely with departments of teacher education and educational psychology in order to influence future teachers, counselors, and psychologists to become school leaders. At Hayward, we have developed an interdisciplinary course in "collaborative leadership" aimed at all of these audiences. We are hoping that this can evolve into a certificate on leadership. Sam Hollingsworth at San Jose State University is working toward a masters in teacher leadership, as is Lisa Delpit at Georgia State University. It is becoming well understood that principals cannot improve schools alone.

Other alterations are needed as well. Currently in California, single subject teacher credential students seem to become thoroughly attached to their subject matter during their undergraduate work. Not until their fifth year do they begin to learn what it is to be a teacher. This process may contribute to the difficulty many secondary teachers have in teaching children, not only the discipline, and in working collegially to improve their schools.

Professional development needs to be seen as a life-long, "seamless" learning experience. In *Who Will Save Our Schools* (Lambert, Kent, *et. al.*, 1997), Anna Ershler Richert of Mills College in Oakland describes some

design principles (pp. 158-164) for professional education—principles guiding the preparation of teachers as informal and formal leaders:

> *Principle 1:* Teacher learning is a lifelong process that begins at the preservice level and continues throughout the teacher's (and principal's) career. The uncertain context of teacher's work renders learning a lifelong corollary to teaching.
>
> *Principle 2:* Reflection and inquiry are the methods by which teachers learn. These processes engage teachers in examining their practice and constructing new knowledge that will guide their future work.
> *Principle 3:* Teachers reflect about their past, present, and future experiences in school. Learning to view experience as the content of teacher reflection is an important part of professional development.
>
> *Principle 4:* When teachers reflect, they reflect about something. Because this something is the "matters of school life," these matters or experiences of teachers must be captured in some form so that teachers can reflect upon them.
>
> *Principle 5:* Not only do teachers need time and opportunity to reflect on their work, they need that time and opportunity to do so in the company of others with whom they can construct meaning.
>
> *Principle 6:* To construct meaning (to learn) within a collaborative context, teachers need the opportunity to speak and be heard as well as to listen and respond to the thoughts and beliefs of others.
>
> *Principle 7:* Collaborative learning groups in teaching should be structured to incorporate multiple perspectives because difference will stretch the opportunity to learn and better reflect the complex world of difference at the same time.
>
> *Principle 8:* Conflict is a necessary outcome of collaborative structures in which teachers come together to discuss issues of importance to them. Rather than inhibit learning, conflict can enhance it by causing people to stretch in their understandings and create alliances across differences that ultimately benefit everyone.
>
> *Principle 9:* Given that they focus on different "matters at hand," collaborative learning groups need to accommodate changing leadership configurations according to the problem under consideration, the group's current membership, and what outcomes are needed.

These principles hold two major implications for our work in educational administration: (1) Since our students are teachers, if they have been prepared and continued to learn in these ways, they would possess a keen *leadership consciousness* when they entered our programs; and (2) These are the very design principles that principals and other

administrators need to employ in their work with the professional learning of others and themselves. These principles alter significantly ancient ideas of staff development.

7. How else might we reconceptualize leadership and school change?

There are a number of emerging questions that hunger for responses. These are the next layer of questions with which I am struggling:

- How might we think about the influence of principal succession on resilient schools?
- What new relationships must be formed between the school and the district, professional organizations, universities?
- How will we unite professional preparation and development?
- Who is responsible for reform?
- How else do we build leadership capacity in schools and organizations?

Conclusion

The work of building leadership capacity is essential to the reform and sustained achievement of schools. Such work must become the concern of state policy groups and professional organizations, such as California Association of Professors of Educational Administration, Association of California School Administrators, American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, National Teachers Association, and American Federation of Teachers. It will require that such groups transcend their current boundaries and think about professional education and development as involving all educators and institutions.

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Emerging Constructs of Power:

Teacher Beliefs Embedded in Practice with Implications for School Leadership

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Introduction

In an effort to improve educational practice, a growing number of school districts are implementing reforms at the school level that are intended to "empower" teachers in decision making. These efforts, such as site-based decision making, shared decision making, and other collaborative efforts between teachers and administrators, assume a definition of relationships that, until now, have centered around staff and line authority as part of the traditional bureaucratic framework. This is the model under which many of our current administrators were trained. Until recently, bureaucratic power relationships were unquestioned among administrators and teachers. Now there is an emerging body of literature in organizational theory, especially micro-systems theory, which questions these relationships in the study of politics and power relations within schools. The findings of these studies propose redefinitions of power relations among teachers and administrators that support collaborative practices (*e.g.*, Ball & Bowe, 1991; Blase, 1991; Blount, 1994; Duke & Gansneder, 1990; Dunlap & Goldman, 1991; Hargreaves, 1994; Webster, 1994).

Several studies report findings that demonstrate how shared decision making and site based management may be ignoring ways to involve teachers effectively in decisions that are meaningful to them. Instead of increasing appropriate teacher decision making, some studies report that shared decision making and site-based management have become a game where teachers pretend they are involved, respond passively to what administrators want them to do, and then return to their classrooms to teach and make decisions in accustomed ways (Malen, Ogawa, & Kranz, 1990; Weiss, Cambone, & Wyeth, 1992). In the above example, "empowerment" is a pejorative term fostering teacher suspicions rather than trust, thwarting teacher efficacy through a feigned decision-making and participative process, and thus lowering future teacher commitment to active engagement or involvement. Thus, some teachers view "empowerment" as a gimmick, a nongenuine game of rhetoric unrelated to the realities of their everyday teaching practices, a way for administrators to "dump" work on them.

The first part of this article will address research findings related to teachers' current beliefs and understandings about the use of organizational power in schools. The next part of the article presents findings from a study that examined teachers' beliefs embedded in everyday practices. The survey asked teachers to respond to items about the use of organizational power in their schools. The purpose of this article is twofold: (1) to identify and report perspectives and beliefs from a group of teachers across two states concerning how power and influence are exercised in schools; and (2) to suggest what administrators might do, based on the conclusions of the study, to utilize teachers' views more effectively.

Conceptual Framework

Based on an overview of the literature in organizational theory, especially literature that focuses on power relationships, five teacher belief areas based on everyday practices in schools emerged. We identified these as: autonomy, responsibility, use of resources, political efficacy and expertise, and hierarchy. Each of these constructs is described from the literature contrasting past constructs with emerging definitions of organizational dimensions of power.

1. Teacher autonomy has long been associated with teachers' beliefs about what it means to be a professional (Lortie, 1975). In Lortie's classic work, *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study*, autonomy was associated with the isolationism of teachers' work that inhibited the development of a shared technical core about "good" teaching. Rather, teachers reported that their individual experiences, trial and error, and results

from standardized tests were sources of learning about teaching. Bureaucratic models of teacher autonomy limit teacher decision making to classroom monitoring by supervisors and principals (Waite, 1995).

New definitions of autonomy move beyond closed classroom doors to school-wide involvement (Acker-Hocevar, Touchton, & MacGregor, 1996). Autonomy requires group freedom *for* action to make changes within shared norms of collegiality and community, and the corresponding administrative support to institutionalize innovations under way (Kilbourn, 1991; Weinstein, Madison, & Kuklinski, 1995). Autonomy under partnership power is relational and requires improved communication structures to share information "throughout" the school to make decisions (Burbules, 1986).

2. Teacher responsibility is often related to the position one holds in the school system. Thus, the principal is more responsible than a teacher, a teacher more responsible than a student, and so on. Under bureaucratic definitions of power relations, teachers carry out school goals and are thus responsible for following rules and adhering to regulations. Responsibility in this sense is viewed as the non-abuse of power ensured by following rules.

Macpherson (1996) states that when leaders share responsibility, a context is created to assist teachers in developing new skills to exercise judgment over their work. This co-development of skills goes beyond mere compliance and *enables* teachers to assume greater responsibility in the participation of the political life in schools. Lichtenstein, McLaughlin, and Knudsen (1992) found that decentralization, or enhanced teacher authority, did not necessarily lead to more teacher responsibility by itself. They conclude that teachers who exercised more choice over their professional lives altered the relationships they had with administrators.

3. Resources are traditionally associated with power. The greater control over the use of resources, the more power a person has in the system (Pfeffer, 1992). Without a more holistic understanding of how resources can be used to accomplish agreed-upon goals of a system, individuals are at cross-purposes as to their use (Foster, 1996).

Beliefs about resources are different under bureaucratic and partnership models of power. Foster (1996) argues that resources under bureaucratic power are used to control, reward, and remunerate others. This causes power struggles in which conflict arises over how to make decisions to allocate and use resources based on perceptions of fairness. According to Foster, individual goals are the basis for micropolitical action. The use and distribution of resources can either promote individual goals or system-wide goals. Decisions that limit who has access to resources affects teacher perceptions of how resources afford power

(Anderson & Blase, 1995; Blase, 1991).

4. Political Efficacy and Expertise are two separate ideas often associated with one another because of their relationship in bureaucratic systems (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991). Within bureaucratic organizations, advancement is not only dependent on the possession of appropriate credentials and expertise, but often enhanced by the political connections in the system itself.

Blase's (1991) analysis of qualitative data reveals that political efficacy is using expertise to obtain preferred outcomes. In particular, teachers who are viewed as being experts or knowledgeable in a "political" area have a greater likelihood of being insiders in the political power structure and being "given" more influence. In contrast, Dunlap and Goldman (1991) observed multiple school sites and found that political efficacy may be defined more by actors within and political influence tactics *more* teachers than used by teachers themselves to further their own advancements.

Anderson (1991) examined the process of cognitive politics in a suburban school and the extent to which ideological control is exercised in organizations traditionally viewed as nonideological. According to Anderson, "empowerment occurs when the powerless begin to understand those broader political and economic interests that get played out at the school board" (p. 127). In a bureaucratic system, knowledge is political. In contrast, knowledge in a partnership model builds linkages across groups to strengthen the organization.

5. Hierarchy implies an information system that is top-down. The hierarchical model of schools is promulgated through an artificial division of labor that promotes the formation of interest groups competing against one another to achieve their desired goals (Blase, 1991). Burbules (1986) argues that power struggles are inevitable given the hierarchical social system. Hierarchical power relations are embedded in the everyday relationships in schools and cause distrust by teachers of administrators who presume to know what is best for them (Burbules, 1986).

With the movement toward restructuring, perceptions of power and the roles of principals are changing (Prestine, 1991). The inception of "empowerment" in the late 1990s is a means to equalize power relations in order to alter traditional power relationships involving top-down authority (Hargreaves, 1994).

The Study

We examined teacher' beliefs and perspectives about power along the five dimensions described above. Specifically, teachers responded to survey items on a Likert-type scale ranging from a low of "1" or "strongly

disagree," to a high of "4" or "strongly agree." Five-hundred and twenty teachers participated in the study of whom 220 were from Alabama and 300 were from Florida.

We wanted to know: (a) What dimensions of power were most strongly associated with teachers' perceptions of power? and (b) How these perceptions differed by state of residence. We chose to compare Alabama and Florida teachers because of the relative difference of statewide reform implementation efforts between these two states.[1] Measures were constructed representing the five dimensions of power discussed above.

The Findings

The mean scores for each of the five dimensions of power are presented in Table 1. Means are first shown for the teacher responses as a whole. Several patterns in these findings are noteworthy.

Autonomy. The high score on Autonomy would be expected from the literature on teacher professionalism (*e.g.*, Rosenholtz, 1989), and can be explained by current attempts to increase teacher decision making at the local school level (*e.g.*, Malen, Ogawa, & Kranz, 1990). The teachers in the study placed a high value on their own professional autonomy or "being afforded direct involvement in the implementation of decisions," "free to make changes," and working in a context of "minimal supervision."

Political Efficacy and Expertise. The Political Efficacy and Expertise Dimension was the second highest dimension, with a mean of 3.54. Over 90 percent of all the teachers agreed with all items on the survey that addressed this dimension. A powerful educator is "knowl-

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges for Dimensions of Power
(Total Sample)

Dimensions of Power	Total	SD	Min	Max
Autonomy	3.46	.46	1.75	4.00
Political Efficacy	3.54	.38	1.89	4.00
Resources	2.89	.48	2.00	4.00
Responsibility	2.83	.50	1.50	4.00
Hierarchy	2.41	.39	1.00	3.50

Scale: 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Disagree.

edgeable, has and uses expertise," and "reaches students through teaching, choosing curricula, and selection of materials." Further, a powerful educator is politically efficacious and "knows how to cut through bureaucratic red tape to affect change," "access resources," and is "actively involved in the whole school."

Resources. The lower mean score for the Resource Dimension (2.89) reflects less agreement on how teachers view the relationship between resources (*e.g.*, external funding and material support) and power. Most teachers agreed (83 percent) that power was best described as "access to resources, " and that "resources afford power" (77 percent).

Responsibility. The mean score on the Responsibility Dimension (2.83) indicates teacher agreement that the relationship between power and responsibility is viewed as the "acceptance of responsibility" (90 percent). Additionally, over 66 percent of the teachers *disagreed* that "responsibility and power were one and the same."

Hierarchy. The Hierarchy Dimension had the lowest mean (2.41) and ranked at the bottom of the five dimensions from this study. Nevertheless, over half of the teachers stated power is "who you know," "a top-down phenomenon," and is defined differently for "males than females."

State Comparisons. In Table 2, the mean scores show only modest differences between the Alabama and Florida teachers on the five dimensions of power, with the exception of Autonomy where Florida teachers (3.51) were significantly more likely to report greater teacher autonomy than Alabama teachers (3.39). The context of school reform in the state of Florida has supported shared decision making longer than in Alabama. Because of these differences, and with the Autonomy Dimen-

Table 2
Means and Standard Deviations Between States and Overall for Dimensions of Power

	Alabama		Florida		Total Group	
Power	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Autonomy	3.39	0.5	**3.51***	0.43	3.46	0.46
Political Efficacy	3.34	0.37	3.35	0.38	3.34	0.38
Resources	2.9	0.46	2.88	0.49	2.89	0.48
Responsibility	2.88	0.45	2.79	0.52	2.83	0.5
Hierarchy	2.42	0.39	2.41	0.39	2.41	0.39

Significance * $p < .05$; *ANOVA $F < .05$
Scale: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Agree, 4=Strongly Agree

sion being significantly different, one would have expected Florida teachers to have significantly different beliefs and perspectives about the other four dimensions.

Discussion

In general, teachers in this study supported the concept of autonomy and agreed that an empowered educator is one who not only makes appropriate classroom level decisions, but also directly participates in the implementation of school policy decisions. As our results show, Florida teachers were significantly more likely than Alabama teachers to hold these same beliefs about what it means to be an empowered educator. In contrast, teachers were least likely to agree with hierarchy beliefs of power, which suggest that the context of top-down decision making is changing somewhat. Yet, the fact that there were so many teachers who felt "powerless," and saw power as a "top-down" phenomenon calls into question the bureaucratic mandates under which many schools operate.

One pattern emerged regarding four of the five dimensions of power. We found that autonomy and responsibility were related. The most experienced and educated teachers in Alabama were the most likely to hold both these beliefs about power. That is, an empowered educator is not only one who autonomously makes appropriate classroom level decisions and participates in policy decisions, but who also views power as the acceptance of responsibility.

Implications for Administrators

Autonomy. Administrators must promote faculty interaction to shape and sustain change efforts over time that facilitate teachers' work in collaborative ways such as in teams, shared dialogue, and reflective practice (Neumann, 1993). If professional autonomy is to lead to improved motivation and performance as advocated by Raelin (1986), then teachers must have a certain level of competence and be recognized as equal partners with administrators within new power definitions. To support interaction, time must be scheduled for teachers to work and plan together to address the needs of all client groups (Snyder, Acker-Hocevar, & Wolf, 1995). Communication processes must expand the response "ablenness" for groups to act. Shared communication depends on relational power which determines the degree to which administrators trust teachers, and teachers trust administrators to act within the norms of collective expertise. School administrators should share infor-

mation on a routine basis and involve teachers in sharing their expertise to create a culture that encourages and values organizational learning to grapple with complex schooling problems.

Responsibility. Administrators must be willing to provide the necessary staff development for teachers to have the tools to choose to act more responsibility. Touchton (1996) synthesized the literature on shared decision making and recommended four broad areas administrators should provide staff development: process communication, decision making, team building, and conflict negotiation. With these skills, teachers and administrators might feel more comfortable discussing problems, resolving conflict, and practicing behaviors that build trust.

Responsibility, along with accountability, are essential elements of teacher empowerment (Darling-Hammond, 1992). These essential elements, according to Darling-Hammond, require the enforcement of the norms of professional and ethical practice, with the teachers' first concern being the welfare of the student.

Resources. Administrators must encourage a broader understanding of how resources can be attained, used, and prioritized within the school community, and recognize how group-level coalitions can assist educators in obtaining more resources to support greater learning outcomes instead of causing conflict. Blase (1991) found that authoritarian principals were perceived by teachers to use resources to exact compliance.

Political Efficacy and Expertise. Professional knowledge carries its own kind of authority, and the exercise of that authority impacts students. This authority, when used in combination with decision making in the broader arena, translates into genuine teacher empowerment. It is not so much a question of giving authority to teachers as it is a question of allowing teachers to share their expertise on learning collectively.

Administrators must share information with teachers so they have explicit knowledge of the system to make it work for the benefit of students. This means translating policies into action that include teachers as key players in school decisions that affect them. Teachers must use their expertise and political efficacy for the benefit of the community. Administrators must aid teachers in gaining a political understanding so they can choose to use their expertise and gain a greater sense of efficacy (Burbules, 1986).

Hierarchy. Administrators must examine factors that inhibit change in the traditional roles and relationships between teachers and principals, and factors that promote collaborative, shared decision-making. Inherent in schools, as we have currently structured them, "in adminis-

trative hierarchies and roles, in instructional methods, in classroom size and organization, in curricular values and practices, and in popular conceptions of what 'teachers' and 'students' should be and do in our culture" are top-down beliefs about power (Burbules, 1986, p. 111). Prestine (1991) concluded that the role of the principal was paramount in encouraging teachers to make a commitment to changes in power relations and promote trust in the process. She emphasized that the principal must cultivate a network of relationships that promotes four factors of change: new conceptions of power, need for systemic agreement, willingness to take risks, and "smart" schools.

According to O'Hair and Reitzug (1996), schools have typically operated from this hierarchical model where principals are positioned at the top of the apex of the hierarchy. This in turn renders teachers relatively powerless.

Both Burbules (1986) and Wartenberg (1990) conceive of power as a web, as a system of social relations. This social system functions to connect individuals with one another, while at the same time works to keep them apart. Similarly, certain power relations prevail in schools because they remain in society among classes, sexes, and various racial, ethnic, and religious groups (Burbules, 1986; Eisler, 1993, 1995).

Conclusion

In conclusion, norms within the various contexts of both teachers' and administrators' work cultures exert enormous influence over beliefs of power and empowerment. Questions surrounding these beliefs must be raised if teachers' workplaces are to become more democratic, partnership-oriented places of work. Norms are reference points that continue to maintain existing relationships (Oshry, 1995). Until power relationships are redefined to create norms of shared responsibility, it is doubtful that teachers will feel connected to other teachers and administrators to work together to improve learning outcomes. For schools to self-organize into places that are different, power beliefs that limit partnership practices *must be challenged to be changed*.

Schools operate within the larger environment in which they are situated. This environment, according to McLaughlin, Talbert and Bascia (1990), contextualizes teachers' work within various levels of mandates (*e.g.*, school, district, state, and federal levels). Educators are influenced by the political, social, and economic ideologies which have discouraged partnership and perpetuated domination over the norms of teacher work. Until these influences are mitigated, school reform is doomed.

Note

1. Alabama and Florida have different state contexts for school reform. Alabama reform is driven by the Alabama Education Accountability Plan which focuses on high achievement and safe, orderly schools. Florida reform is driven by *Blueprint 2000*, which provides educators with guidelines for school accountability supported by school improvement plans and encourages developing learning strategies for all students (*Blueprint 2000*, 1992). Alabama reform is grounded in equity issues and focuses on financial spending and test results. Ironically, Alabama was one of a few states, until recently, to reject *Goals 2000* monies as federal intervention into a state's right to determine goals and outcomes.

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Reconceptualizing Leadership in Culturally Diverse Settings:

A Learning Community Model

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Introduction

Despite the well-intentioned efforts of the major waves of educational reform since the 1980s, these efforts have not been effective in addressing the needs of *all* students, particularly those from culturally and linguistically diverse populations. Our observation from the literature is that systemic reform and effective leadership efforts are rooted in middle class, Eurocentric cultural frames of reference and organizational structures. A Eurocentric perspective omits alternative frames of reference, experiences, and the *funds of knowledge* that many students bring to the educational process (Floyd-Tenery, González, & Moll, 1993; González *et al*, 1993). In this paper, we attempt to reconceptualize systemic reform and empowering leadership using the lens of sociocultural theory in order to facilitate more inclusive and effective school reform. We present our Learning Community Model as a construct for examining dynamic and holistic contexts for leadership and systemic reform. We conclude by identifying how the model can be used by current practioners and how it might be applied in the preparation of school leaders and administrators.

Development of the Learning Community Model

The concept for our project emerged in our ongoing dialogue about school reform. What concerned us was that the reform movements have not been successful for *all* students, most notably students of color and students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. As we focused our conversation, we decided that what was missing from the school reform dialogue was a consideration of the sociocultural perspective; this led to our decision to generate a model that would address these issues.

The first stage in the development of the model grew out of an inquiry process which centered on cultural diversity as a rich resource for school reform. We asked questions concerning the failure of school reform, and identified the following factors which should incorporate a broader perspective of effective leadership in culturally diverse settings: (a) the necessity of parent involvement; (b) the importance of linking the community to the school; (c) the need for cultural guides as role models; (d) the inclusion of authentic assessment and action research; and (e) the development and implementation of a theoretical framework linked with a historical perspective regarding cultural diversity.

In the second stage of our work, we identified and defined the tenets of sociocultural theory by reviewing and synthesizing the literature. Within the school reform movements of the last decade, we recognized two important themes—*empowering leadership* and *systemic reform*—as central to authentic change in schools. However, we also recognized that while much has been written for teacher education concerning diversity issues, very little has been developed for educational leadership.

Finally, the process led us to the third stage, in which we linked the tenets of sociocultural theory, empowering leadership, and systemic reform by developing a matrix (see Appendix A: Sociocultural Factors Affecting School Reform in Culturally Diverse Settings). In the process of developing the matrix, we realized the necessity of coming to consensus on the definition of the terms we used within each of the categories. We then explored the following question: How does the sociocultural perspective inform empowering leadership and systemic reform? Thus we generated a new understanding of these two areas, based on the insights of sociocultural theory.

Using the constructivist approach, we collaboratively developed the Learning Community Model (Figure 1). This model serves as a construct for decision-making, resource gathering, and program planning for educational communities in which every member is a contributor. Learning is a social process in which knowledge is constructed,

deconstructed and reconstructed in the exchange of information between novice and expert learners. The main goal of the learning community is success for all in a social context in which learning is a lifelong process. The major support for the learning community comes in the form of providing ongoing mediated assistance or scaffolding, and developing a dynamic and holistic construct of culture and context.

In order for educational reform to take hold and address the needs of *all* students, the entire system must change. We suggest that one way to ensure systemic reform is to view it through the lens of sociocultural theory. Only in this blending of theory and practice, which recognizes the tremendous resource of funds of knowledge and the need for creating a dynamic and holistic construct of culture and context supported by ongoing mediated assistance, can reform thrive. The entire system must become a learning community in order to nurture and support *all* the students and other stakeholders.

Figure 1
Sociocultural Factors Affecting School Reform

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Defining Terms: Sociocultural Theory and Empowering Leadership

Through this process of constructive dialogue, we came to consensus on the following definitions to explain and to integrate the work of systemic reform and empowering leadership as explored through the lens of sociocultural theory:

Sociocultural Theory. Although there is no absolute consensus on the terminology on which sociocultural theory is based, we utilize the conceptual framework that Wertsch, Del Rio, and Alvarez (1995) set forth. In discussing terminology, Wertsch *et al.* acknowledge the various terms for this approach, such as socio-psychological, cultural-historical, socio-cultural-historical, and sociohistorical, which all are based in the Vygotskian heritage. They argue, however, that the term *sociocultural* is the preferred term to describe the appropriation of the Vygotskian heritage.

The primary aim of the sociocultural approach is to provide understandings as to the social and cultural factors which impact teaching and learning in school settings in order to improve educational outcomes for *all* students, especially for ethnic and linguistic minority students. This approach utilizes qualitative analysis to understand the various complex factors that affect school success and failure. Of particular importance is the way specific contexts affect learning. The strengths of this approach are that it is inclusive, recognizing culture as an important variable in learning, and is flexible and adaptable to individual contexts. The limitation of this approach is that it is sophisticated and requires educators, particularly those in leadership positions, to rethink their basic philosophy of education to make changes in structure and culture of the school.

Tenets of Sociocultural Approach. 1. Anthropological Basis of Culture: Although there is divergence as to an exact definition of the word *culture*, anthropologists generally emphasize that culture is: (a) learned rather than innate; (b) shared by a group of people who create a context for individual activity; (c) an adaptation to new and challenging conditions ranging from the environment to power relationships within society; and (d) a dynamic system that has permeable and changing boundaries (Gollnick & Chinn, 1994).

Of particular importance to education are the ideas that culture is learned and shared. Children usually first learn their culture from their parents, families, and home communities. Because culture is shared, it creates a context in which human activity makes sense. The context is

especially powerful because of the familial connections. Generally speaking, a child comes to school with a certain set of assumptions concerning what is appropriate in terms of behaviors, values and beliefs, and also the *meaning* of those behaviors, values and beliefs.

2. Mediation/Assisted Performance: According to Tharp and Gallimore (1988), learning in the sociocultural perspective is assisted performance. Using scaffolding techniques, more competent others guide novice learners in problem solving and tasks. Following the traditional apprenticeship model, the task is not diminished for the novice learner, but the level of assistance moves from being substantial in early stages to minimal and none at all in later stages. In this view, teachers facilitate learning and serve as guides to students. Teachers must be aware of student's unassisted performance level and assisted performance level, and gear mediation and assistance to the level in between the two, which Vygotsky referred to as the *zone of proximal development* (ZoPD). The ZoPD fluctuates for each child and task; as the child grows and develops, the ZoPD changes according to that development and task. This ZoPD applies to the adult learner in the educational setting as teachers provide assisted performance for students, so must administrators provide assistance for teachers and vice versa.

3. Motivation: From the sociocultural perspective, motivation is inherent in the human condition. Motivation for learning occurs when learning experiences are structured to be authentic and meaningful, and related to real-life tasks and problem solving. Motivation is enhanced in the social, relational dimension of learning, including the relationship between the learner, the more competent other, and the task at hand. Motivation is also enhanced by utilizing learners funds of knowledge and using culturally responsive pedagogy.

4. Learning Communities: Learning does not occur in isolation from the community. A community is based on the core-belief that all members of the community are learners, and that the context for learning has no boundaries. The members of the community work collaboratively to: (a) support the learning process; (b) support each other in pursuit of learning and valuing one another; and (c) value lifelong learning.

5. Constructivism: Based largely on the work of Soviet psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978), this approach views all learning as social, in which expert learners mediate new learning experiences for the novice learner. The theoretical framework has been most recently applied in educational settings through classroom strategies such as Instructional Conversations (IC) and identifying learners' zones of proximal development. Learning situations, curricula, and activities are "constructed" through a process of dialogue and mediation. The strength of this approach is that

students are actively involved in the learning process and contribute to the construction of knowledge. The limitation is that there is no precise "formula" for knowledge construction and therefore, the actual implementation of this approach needs to vary in different activity settings. This can be frustrating for classroom teachers who are not well grounded in its theory and methodology.

6. Authenticity: Authenticity in the sociocultural perspective means that *all* aspects of education—the curriculum, school environment, materials, assessment, interactions and relationships—are rooted in real life. All teaching and learning must be authentic and meaningful. Authenticity refers to the connections between structured learning activities and every day problem-solving tasks, mediated by the particular culture and context of the learner and the teacher. Learning is relevant, holistic, concrete and contextualized, as opposed to irrelevant, fragmented, abstract and decontextualized.

7. Teaching and Learning as a Process: Process is the on-going series of actions, events, operations, and relationships that lead to value-added knowledge and growth. All learning is seen as a process, and the process is as important as the product. Additionally, the process of learning is transformational, not merely additive. That is, learning is not simply the sum of various parts, rather the synergy of the learner, the teacher, and the question to be answered. Thus, learning is social and relational. Learners solve new questions and tasks drawing upon their entire histories of experiences by relating to problems to be solved, new ideas, new tasks, and other persons. The interaction between and among the above transforms the individual parts (the learner, the question, the one teaching or leading) in a holistic, integrative, and constructivist manner that creates something new. The process of transformational learning is on-going and lifelong.

8. Funds of Knowledge: The funds of knowledge construct (Moll, Vélez-Ibañez & González, 1992; Vélez-Ibañez, 1988) maintains that every student enters school with an individual and community-based history and a set of experiences. Students and their families may have rich life experience in areas such as household management, farming, ranching, mining, repair work, medicine and fold medicine, and construction (Moll, Amanti, Neff & González, 1992; Vélez-Ibanez & Greenberg, 1992). The combination of these forces are a particular student's funds of knowledge, which can be described as the totality of experiences and home-based knowledge each student brings to school from the home culture (Martin, 1996).

Such an approach is especially significant for ethnic minority, language minority, and immigrant students because they may bring

very different funds of knowledge than students with dominant socioeconomic status (SES). Using the existing funds of knowledge that students bring from their families is important for teachers and administrators. This helps to build a bridge between the home culture and the school culture, and enhances student motivation.

Systemic Reform. Schools are considered by many to be the most complex of all social inventions, because of the interplay among organizational structures, management processes, instructional activities, and student achievement (Hanson, 1991). "Our peculiar way of organizing public education in the United States has made change even more difficult—and less apt to yield results" (Finn, 1991, p. 184). Chubb and Hanushek (1990) observe the *layer cake organization pattern* of public schools as part of the problem. The hierarchical nature of school organizations and the three separate levels of government, including local, state, and federal, all compete to set educational policy and govern local schools.

By the late 1980s, the reform attention was directed to the entire education system, focusing on such change variables as leadership, decision making, and organizational culture (Fullan, 1991; Goodlad, 1984; Rosenholtz, 1989; Sizer, 1984). "Yet eight years after being proclaimed a 'nation at risk,' we've eliminated virtually none of the hazardous practices, dangerous ideas, or pointless customs of the education system" (Finn, 1991, p. 185).

The current need for systemic reform demands change and dramatic improvements in student achievement as necessary components of the education agenda in the 1990s (Odden, 1995). The school is at the center of change in the educational system. However, while the local school is a unit of organizational change, the local district, together with the state, are units of system change (Murphy, Hallinger & Mesa, 1985; Odden, 1991). In order for change to occur at the classroom level, change must also occur up and down the entire educational structure. The sociocultural theory suggests that collegial social systems generate greater productivity in change efforts and opportunities for student learning (Joyce, Bennett & Rolheiser-Bennett, 1990). In order to realize lasting change, all members of the school community need the support of the entire school, the school needs the support of the district, and the district needs the support of the county, state, and federal government structures (Odden, 1991). The school also needs the support of the community. The entire system needs to support and form the scaffolding necessary for the change to occur in the classrooms with teachers, students, and parents as partners.

Fullan (1993) suggests that what is needed are coherence-making

strategies at the local level, not the appearance of coherence at the state and national levels. Building communities of learners calls for change in school systems and cultures built on learning for teachers, administrators, and students—the development of professional school cultures (Goodlad, 1990; Joyce, 1990; Joyce & Murphy, 1990; Loucks-Horsely & Stiegelbauer, 1991). The key issue of systemic reform however, must remain excellence in education for *all* students (Finn, 1991; Tye, 1992).

Empowering Leadership. "The school is an organization, and organizations change more effectively when their heads play active roles in helping to lead improvement" (Fullan, 1991, p. 152). Educational change is a socio-political process and a fact of life that involves loss, anxiety, and struggle; change is a process, not an event (Hall & Hord, 1987). Significant change is accomplished through empowering leadership in which the leader takes an active role in empowering the players in the change process, taking a developmental approach, and pursuing multiple lines of involvement simultaneously (Anderson, 1989; Fullan, 1991).

The effective schools research indicates that schools will be successful agents of change if the following are in place: strong leadership, a safe climate, academic achievement, high expectations for students and teachers, and a monitoring and reward system (Finn, 1991; Lemlech, 1990). The site principal is a central player in school change efforts: a manager of the school culture, a disseminator of vital information, a resource gatherer, and a power and reward broker (Hanson, 1991; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Marsh, 1988; Schlechty, 1990). Teacher/administrator networks, collaborative cultures, supportive policy makers, and high quality ongoing assistance all need to be established to bring about systemic change.

Leadership is a critical function in the change process that combines consistent pressure, monitoring, and support, along with ongoing assistance and proper resources to build the scaffolding necessary to further the learning of all community members. By sharing in empowering leadership, teachers are more involved in running and managing schools and equally accountable for results. Information, knowledge, power, and rewards must be developed and shared at the school level and set within a systemic reform context in order to create the schools the children and society need (Odden, 1995).

Learning Community Model

The following section articulates the processes by which empowering leadership and systemic reform are reconceptualized through the Learn-

ing Community Model. In order to assist in developing educational communities that link systemic reform and empowering leadership with the sociocultural theory, we created the Learning Community Model. The model serves as a construct for decision-making, resource gathering, and program planning for educational communities in which every member is a learner. The main goal of the learning community is success for all in a social context in which learning is a lifelong process. The major support for the learning community comes in the form of providing ongoing mediated assistance or scaffolding, and developing a dynamic and holistic construct of culture and context.

Reconceptualizing Leadership in Culturally Diverse Settings. The recent, dramatic demographic changes in California indicate growth in the numbers of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. This has challenged school and community leaders to be more responsive to their needs in order to create school climates that not only *value* diversity, but also *incorporate* diversity into all aspects of the decision-making processes of school life. We believe that the tenets of sociocultural theory are the key to cultural and linguistic incorporation for school leaders.

In order for educational reform to take hold and address the needs of *all* students, the entire system must change. Systemic reform thrives and is equitable when: (a) there is an integration of theory and practice; (b) the funds of knowledge of all contributors are viewed as resources to the educational setting; and (c) the dynamic and holistic constructs of culture and context are supported by ongoing mediated assistance. The following section addresses the implications and application of the model for practitioners and administrative preparation programs.

Implications of the Model. School climate and culture are affected by administrative policies and by close personal contact with the processes of teaching and learning. Sergiovanni & Starratt (1993) suggest that administrators and teachers must work together to transform the learning environment into a more user-friendly environment that communicates care and respect, and fosters a community of learners. We contend this type of environment cannot be created unless the administrators and teachers recognize and value the funds of knowledge of all stakeholders and implement processes such as scaffolding that build upon the gifts and talents of all members.

Therefore, the Learning Community Model has promise in responding to the above concerns by combining the following three fields of literature which have not been previously linked: sociocultural theory, leadership, and systemic reform. Our model links the literature in order to identify helpful factors to assist administrators in working with others

to create educational environments that respect *all* cultures and focus on the success of *all* students. The model has implications in two areas: implications for practitioners and implications for administrative preparation programs.

Implications for Practitioners. The implementation of the Learning Community Model calls for collaboration between administrators, teachers, parents, and students in the following:

- Administrators must make a paradigm shift from leader to learner;
- Administrators must become students of culture, both the formal and informal culture represented by the stakeholders in the local community;
- Administrators must provide avenues for the sharing of cultural knowledge and experiences among all stakeholders;
- Administrators must work collaboratively to create a vision inclusive of *all* stakeholders;
- Administrators must use funds of knowledge in the process of facilitating change, particularly in the area of mediated assistance and scaffolding, applied to all stakeholders in the school/district setting;
- Administrators must be proactive in recruiting, hiring, training, and providing needed services for guides/role models that are reflective of the local community to serve in leadership positions and on decision-making teams;
- Administrators must focus ongoing assessment and evaluation through the lens of cultural diversity to insure success for *all* students;
- Administrators must work to build strong traits of trust, communication, and empowerment among all stakeholders;
- Administrators must structure the teacher/staff evaluation process to hold all members of the staff accountable for assisting all students in the construction of knowledge;
- Administrators must practice reflective leadership and share the lessons learned with others.

Implications for Administrative Preparation Programs. The implications of the Learning Community Model for administrator preparation programs include the following:

- The curriculum in leadership courses would include the study and application of the sociocultural theory;
- Programs would provide opportunities for future educational leaders to practice reflection focused on identifying underlying beliefs of cultural diversity;
- Programs would provide opportunities for administration students to conduct action research on topics that incorporate cultural diversity;
- Programs would add the study of cultures into the curriculum of administrative course work;

- Professors of educational administration courses would model a constructivist process based on dialogue, inquiry, and the sharing of knowledge;
- The curriculum for educational leaders would incorporate a study of and strategies to support community based change agentry.

Conclusion

At the center of the Learning Community Model is the individual. Respect for all the individual brings to the schoolhouse door is the foundation of the model, based on the tenets of sociocultural theory. We believe it is important for every member of the school environment to be perceived as a learner and be involved in mutual dialogue. As Meier (1995) advises,

> ...schools are the conscious embodiment of the way we want our next generation to understand their world and their place in it. If mutual respect is the bedrock condition necessary for democracy, then it must be the foundation of schooling. (p. 135)

The democratic principles embodied in the tenets of sociocultural theory raise the consciousness of school leaders in order to reframe schooling practices for culturally and linguistically diverse students. We concur with Meier (1995) who states: "our schools must be labs for learning about learning," places that foster "reflective experimentation" (p. 140) where teachers, students, administrators, and parents are active participants in the change process.

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Appendix A

Table 1
Sociocultural Factors Affecting School Reform in Culturally Diverse Settings

Tenets of Sociocultural Theory	*Sociocultural Theory and Systemic Reform*	*Sociocultural Theory and the Role of the Empowering Leadership*
Anthropological basis of culture/ context	The change process is dynamic, on-going, and systemic. The change process is embedded in the local context and culture. Stakeholder input informs the process of building community. Sharing of values, rituals, symbols.	Collects and analyzes a variety of data to gain and share understanding of the learning community. Uses qualitative methods to gain the insider's (emic) perspective (elicits the voice of all stakeholders'). Shares leadership and decision-making. Facilitates cross-cultural and intercultural dialogue. Models and promotes cultural competency.
Mediation/ assisted performance	All planning is done collaboratively. Curriculum and pedagogy are responsive to diversity. The apprenticeship relationship (more competent other and novice) guides the reform process.	Communicates effectively. Seeks input and collaboration with staff, parents, community, and others. Empowers others to be leaders. Provides appropriate resources
Motivation	Common purpose and vision engages *all* stakeholders. Motivation is intrinsic to systemic reform when it is meaningful, authentic, and relevant.	Emphasizes achievement for *all* students. Is animated by a vision that is that is inclusive, reflects the local context and culture, and is shared. Recognizes, understands, and acts on the belief that motivation is inherent in the human condition.

Tenets of Sociocultural Theory	*Sociocultural Theory and Systemic Reform*	*Sociocultural Theory and the Role of the Empowering Leadership*
Learning communities	Systemic, sustained reformed is social and communal in nature. Reform applies to all stakeholders. Everyone is a change agent. Each component of the system informs, supports, and empowers the others.	Challenges and removes boundaries that prohibit the social and communal nature of the teaching/learning process. Transforms structures to be inclusive of all stakeholders. Mediates conflict effectively.
Constructivism	Change is a social process. Change process evolves and grows based on dialogue, inquiry, sharing of knowledge and relationship between and among stakeholders. Incorporates pedagogic diversity.	Promotes professional growth as mutuality. Is dialogic and collaborative decision-making. Facilitates a collaborative and collegial climate.
Authenticity	High expectations are relevant and based on real needs. Curriculum reflects and responds to real life issues, concerns, and experiences. Assessment is performance based and needs based.	Practices value-added leadership resulting in higher levels of commitment and performance. Employs action research to effect real change.

Tenets of Sociocultural Theory	*Sociocultural Theory and Systemic Reform*	*Sociocultural Theory and the Role of the Empowering Leadership*
Teaching and learning as a process	The change process: Is transformative and additive. Is responsive to the needs of society. Is responsive to technological growth. Implements cooperative learning strategies.	Establishes context for teachers and students to work together for continuous improvement. Is committed to the belief that change is a process and not an event. Continues to learn from others.
Funds of knowledge	Recognition and respect of all people. Reform process utilizes the individual and collective strengths of individuals and groups. Power for change is in networking, collaboration, and in critical friend relationships.	Uses site-based decision making. Capitalizes and builds on the strengths of individuals and groups. Values and encourages networks of exchange between and among stakeholders. Empowers all stakeholders to bring/use their funds of knowledge to the setting.

Building Leadership Capacity by Writing and Reflecting on Stories of Practice

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Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to explore the learning that occurs when novices write and reflect on experienced administrators' biographies and stories of practice. The professional literature points to the need for training programs to bridge the gap between theory and practice by drawing from communities of practitioners. One training strategy is to focus on the ways experienced administrators approach problems and manage dilemmas by writing a story of professional practice. These stories become the basis for student reflection and build capacity for leadership by providing a more detailed and richer understanding of how experienced people approach problems. The stories yield insight into why certain actions are taken and not others. They promote a better understanding of the moral and experiential basis of administrative practice.

Theoretical Overview: A Rationale for Writing Stories of Practice

The question of whether leadership can be taught, whether it is

innate, or whether it is something learned as a by-product of experience, is of continual interest to researchers and leadership programs (Bennis, 1989; Hallinger, 1993; Hart, 1993). If practitioner-based skills can be taught, it is likely that they will be based on approaches which emphasize the importance and limits of experience. Writing and reflecting on stories of practice provide one way to promote the wisdom-of-practice (Danzig, 1996; Short & Rinehart, 1994).

A related strategy is to focus on the strategies used by experts by making explicit their thinking and problem-solving skills (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1993, 1995; Danzig, 1997). This builds leadership capacity by developing reflective skills. Issues related to school culture, personal relations, values and beliefs, rituals, and myths take on more meaning as they are presented in stories of practice. These issues are sometimes overlooked or ignored in the rush of daily experience and in the recitation of abstract principles. They allow beginners to consider and inspect the informal or tacit systems which exist side-by-side with the formal systems operating in schools and organizations. Novices gain from richer descriptions of the processes experienced administrators use to consider problems and conflicts in organizations and with people.

What the Story Offers to Novices That Is Different than Traditional Training Approaches

The goal of writing a story of practice is to enhance the novice's learning the "how-to" of practice. Through study of someone's specific story, it is hoped that the novice is better able to recognize and interpret the connection between theory and practice. Constructing stories allows the novice to listen to the inner thinking and dialogue of the experienced person. In part, the novice hears the *reflection-on-action* (Schön, 1991) of a practicing administrator. The story is, by definition, a reconstruction of events which have already happened. As such, there is a reduction of complexity by the story teller. However, the novice is presented with a vocabulary and concepts embedded in the stories of actual circumstances and events (*e.g.*, discipline problems, due process hearings, concern for a safe and orderly campus, etc.).

Part of the learning asks the extent to which the story captures the beliefs and experiences of the story teller. This begins an exploration of the complexity of the performances which are described. This allows the novice to explore how an experienced person solves a complex problem or issue, and how one's own thinking and solution might be similar and different. This in turn leads to recognition of multiple perspectives by which a phenomena is defined as a problem, and to the multiple options which are considered as problems are managed in the world.

Research Approach

The approach in this study was to construct stories of practice as a basis for reflection. Seventeen students enrolled in Master's degree and administrative licensure programs interviewed practicing school administrators. Questions were prepared in advance concerning early life experiences, educational experiences, and professional experiences. In a second interview, administrators were asked to talk about a specific problem or situation that they had recently experienced on-the-job and to discuss how the problem was managed. Students used multiple prompts to elicit responses, one of which was to ask the administrator to share an experience or situation involving parents and organizations or agencies from outside the school system.

All of the interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Students used these transcripts to construct an initial draft of the administrators' background, experience, and story of practice. These drafts were copied and distributed to the class with each student presenting a story for feedback. These initial classroom presentations and peer feedback were audio taped and each presenter given a copy of the audio tape after the discussion. Students then crafted these drafts into stories of professional practice. Class members presented these stories and wrote on what they learned about themselves and about administrative practice during the process. These stories, along with students reflections are summarized in this article.

Findings

Seventeen practicing administrators participated in the study. Fifteen of the 17 administrators selected were of the same gender as the novice doing the interview. This may speak to the comfort levels and importance of gender matching for professional mentoring. Students commented that they used the interviews as opportunities to get to know their supervisors or district administrators better and as an opportunity to be mentored. Table 1 presents information concerning professional biography, key administrative values expressed, and the critical incident explored in the student interviews and stories.

There were many discoveries concerning biography, leadership and leadership development which came out of the stories. Some of the findings include:

1. People become leaders because they make choices (usually difficult at the time) to do something positive in their lives.

Table 1
Elements of the Stories and Cases of Administrative Practice

Student, Story	*Professional Biography*	*Key Values Expressed*	*Critical Incident*
1.	Special education teacher, department chair, assistant principal.	"Best to be consistent;" fair person; advocate for children.	Investigation of rape case.
2.	Teacher, assistant principal, elementary principal, middle school principal.	"Everybody has something to contribute and this is so for children and adults."	On-going meetings and placement of child with multiple handicaps.
3.	Assistant principal, then principal at 2 different high schools.	"Do what you love and forget all distractions;" carefully weigh all possible reactions before making critical decisions.	Multi-million dollar grant application without support of local teachers association.
4.	Special education teacher, administrator, first year as assistant principal.	"I value relationships;" support for staff and students. Sees herself as facilitator.	Student sits on second story ledge threatening suicide. Decision not to call police until following day to seek help.
5.	Rural schoolteacher, to city teacher, assistant principal, principal.	"I serve people, that's my role." Morale building key aspect to job; treat people; as you would have them treat you.	Working with parents and understanding when to push and when to pull.
6.	Teacher, assistant principal at 25, principal at 32.	"Don't react before investigating." "You must really check things out."	Student liaison with custodial employee. Due process of employee ignored.

Table 1 (continued)

Student, Story	*Professional Biography*	*Key Values Expressed*	*Critical Incident*
7.	Teacher, preschool director, assistant principal.	"A problem doesn't go away by not dealing with it." "Get involved early."	First grader brings weapons to school. Angry parents defined as being in denial.
8.	High school teacher and coach for 14 years; now assistant principal.	"Teamwork—a chain is as strong as its weakest link."	Friday afternoon fight with involvement of many students and police.
9.	Teacher for 19 years; principal at private school.	"The buck stops here."	Balancing teacher's recommendation and parent request for placement of child.
10.	First job in business/race relations, aide, teacher, bilingual teacher, assistant principal.	"Not here to win popularity contest." "Treat people with respect and understand there are two sides to every story.	Hostile parent threats teacher. Violent person with long criminal record.
11.	Teacher, federal programs director, assistant superintendent, and superintendent.	"Life is too short to stay in things you don't like;" "Important to like what you are doing and be challenged."	Junior high school student brings gun to school and another brings ammunition.
12.	19 years as a teacher, internship, and now assistant principal.	"Children come first;" value placed on collegiality and collaboration;	Having to expel child from bus; how to balance the well-being of one child with safety of many.

Table 1 (continued)

Student, Story	*Professional Biography*	*Key Values Expressed*	*Critical Incident*
13.	Taught out of country and in country for 17 years; assistant principal for 17 years.	"Go into the job not as some big shot but as a service person for teachers, students, and parents." Service to clients.	Dealing with drunk and violent student. Recommendation for expulsion not supported at school board hearing.
14.	Teacher, assistant principal, special education director, and principal.	"It's the small things which blind side you once in a while." Approach things in a business-like way.	Mediate impasse among teachers over scheduling at high school. Takes tihandi approach to give a little, take a little.
15.	Teacher, head teacher, and high school principal.	"School is almost like a baseball team, where all are competing. A little competition is good."	Hostage situation in classroom with police involvement. Second incident with police called to investigate drugs on campus.
16.	Teacher, reading specialist, director of elementary education, title I supervisor and elementary school principal.	"If you work hard and prepare yourself, things will happen; You can't please all the people all the time; Sometimes, there's just gut feelings."	Directed to accept involuntary transfer from another school. Leads to recommendation for medical leave.
17.	PE teacher, part time teacher/ administrator, assistant principal, principal.	"Times when you have to be black and white and times that it is not appropriate; You hope you can know the difference between the two."	Student found with drugs. Police ask permission to interrogate without parent approval and eventually arrest parents. Student receives drug rehabilitation.

2. None of the story tellers identified themselves as child prodigies; all were surprised at their success.
3. Leaders identified a core set of values and beliefs by which they operate, which included caring, empathy, and humanism.
4. Leaders talked about the culture of the organization, of constantly questioning the status quo, and working effectively with political leaders at all levels.

At early stages of their careers, leaders mentioned the importance of being mentored and following "rules of thumb." Experienced leaders understand these rules as complex set of actions and motivations embedded in practice rather than simple recipes to follow.

A Sampler of Student Reflections

The following comments are taken from the written reflections by students. Some of the reflections relate to caring, to power and administration, and to administrative decision making. Another theme is the connection of the stories to class readings, discussion, and assignments. This is explicitly mentioned by students who raise issues relating to anticipation, collaboration, reframing, and other areas of reading and discussion.

The Caring Administrator

The caring administrator tries to deal with the student and her family, in a non-threatening investigation of (the) teacher's responsibility. She felt that her role as an administrator was not to be in charge of people, as some see it, but to be there for the different people she must work with daily—teachers, classified staff, students, parents—and be their advocate and help them in any way that she could, all the while displaying a caring, open attitude.

The administrator looks at school district administration as an extension of her family. She is very loyal and supportive administrator. . . . This reflects on importance of trust between school and parents.

I see the importance of courage, strength, and determination. Sometimes, an administrator can only do so much.

I felt the genuine concern A. has for his teachers, staff, and students. He has found his work to be very inspiring and uplifting and always focused on improvement of education . . . (and) betterment of students.

Educational Administration and Power

Teachers are feeling overwhelmed and burned-out. I attribute these feelings to the fact that M. does not use a team approach. She likes to show

power. She repeatedly shows she does not understand the culture of the school by not listening to what teachers are saying to her...I believe she takes no ownership in the problem that occurred. During the problem she showed no ability to foresee a dilemma; therefore she was not prepared to react appropriately to the situation. An administrator must approach major school decisions from a team approach.

The principal is open and likes the unity of the group working together to solve problems. Principal is (a) high risk taker. The administrator used his best judgment and acted on it. It was the correct decision for him and I respect him for acting on his beliefs.

Administrative Decision Making

Administrator has created a mindset in which she examines each situation on its individual merits and attempts to come to a solution which has the best interests of all the students in mind. Instead of following policy on weapons with automatic expulsion, she creates solutions to meet the needs of student, school, and community.

It is this attention to detail prior to having an actual crisis that makes this superintendent so successful.... She thinks out strategies in advance and makes sure that the district personnel understand the part they are to play and what is expected of them. This is a very proactive person...

Applications of Class Readings to Reflection

Time and time again I saw similarities or parallels in what Janet was saying and what we have read or discussed in class. In particular, how she perceived her role as principal...caring ethic...issues of power and empowerment, parent involvement, trust.

Her use of anticipation could easily be overlooked.... Examples of this in Connie's practice would be calling the students in only after having written reports of behavior to avoid unfairly accusing a student, calling the student in with their friends to avoid more conflicts in the office, and finally prioritizing which students needed to be removed from campus the quickest to avoid flare-ups at lunch time...

The principal must narrow it down to the most important issues, dealing with those quickly and fairly. Her handling of students in a quick and fair fashion does connect to her own description of her personal qualities. In describing herself as possessing honesty, integrity, and trustworthiness she is listing the qualities she finds most important about herself. In the study of this one case of her practice she shows herself to be non-judgmental in dealing with the students.

Administrators draw from other experiences (finance, human relations, race relations) and reframe to seek new possibilities.

In the crafting of stories, students hear about some of the gray areas in which administrators typically operate. The events and incidents described move beyond simple recipes of practice, and include more tacit knowledge related to performances, how people act in certain situations. Drama and dilemmas are found in many of the stories which generate student interest and reflection. In addition, novices get to listen to others talking about everyday practice.

Conclusion

The goal of this research was to explore the use of stories to enhance the reflective practice of prospective school administrators. The professional literature points to the need for training programs to bridge the gap between theory and practice by drawing from communities of practitioners. However, practice does not necessarily mean expert practice; nor does experience guarantee that one has learned from it. Stories allows practice to be more carefully scrutinized.

There are multiple goals and outcomes from collecting and writing administrators' stories and narratives on administrative practice. One goal is for students to consider and inspect the informal systems which exist side-by-side with the formal systems operating in schools. Issues related to school culture, personal relations, values and beliefs, rituals and myths, take on more meaning as they are presented in stories of practice. These issues are sometimes overlooked or ignored in the rush of daily experience and in the recitation of abstract principles.

Stories provide an opportunity for practicing administrators to share their experiences. Many people enjoy sharing personal and professional experiences, particularly with someone who is less experienced. Although we have collected no data directly from the storytellers, students report that new relationships and new empathies in old relationships are formed.

There is a change in how students appreciate stories as they move from the interviews, to transcripts, and finally, to the actual writing of the story. Students struggle with trying to capture the story completely. They express concern with maintaining the voice of the storyteller and struggle over whether to write stories in the first or third person. They have to address what makes for a good story, how not to bore the reader. Sharing the story with the teller is a higher standard than a course assignment or grade.

As the story took form, students began to identify some of the differences between how they might have constructed the problem and how the experienced practitioner constructed the situation. This led

students to consider their own values, their own choices in what to select as important in the story, and what seems peripheral. It allowed students to examine their own filters, or biases, in order to get a more complete understanding of what is important to them, and how this influences how they handle problems or specific situations. Thus, the exploration of a single example allows students to move to a more general understanding of how policies are enacted and how administrators act in everyday situations.

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Educational Administration Jeopardy:

If Constructivist Leadership Is the Answer, What Is the Question?

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Introduction

In the game show *Jeopardy*, contestants must supply correct questions to proffered answers. In this paper, a similar thought process was used. An invitation to discourse involving Lambert's conception of Constructivist Leadership was issued by this journal's editors. Constructivist Leading is conceptualized as a reciprocal process that enables participants to construct meanings that lead toward common purpose. Purpose and goals develop from among the participants, and there is an emphasis on discourse as a means of conveying commonality of experience and articulating a joint vision (Lambert, 1995). This writer saw this construct as an answer in need of a question. The question offered by this writer has roots in (a) experiences from his work as an assistant professor of educational administration, (b) research from his qualitative dissertation, and (c) discussions from the literature.

Professor Experiences

In my work as a first-year professor of educational administration, a certain issue has arisen with many of my students. When asked to outline their philosophy of leadership, many students delineate two major tenets. First, they desire to be collaborative and empowering leaders; they do not aspire to be controlling or authoritative mangers. Second, they desire to build a strong culture in their schools through communicating their vision; they see cultural leadership and educating stakeholders about their personal vision and mission as being very important to success.

I often comment on their papers that these two ideals may be at cross purposes with each other. Empowering and culture building may not be compatible, as strong culture building may be a subtle, indirect form of control. In some papers, this possible contradiction is especially evident as students seem to be saying: "I really want to empower others, as long as they agree with my vision!" I am particularly sensitive to this contradiction in thinking because of an issue that arose during my dissertation research.

Dissertation Issue

During the course of analyzing interview data from eight elementary school principals for my dissertation, an issue that I called "Balancing Culture and Distributed Decision Making" arose. Some participants seemed truly committed to distributed decision making, while others seemed to be exercising indirect, manipulative control by developing a strong school culture that drove all shared decisions. This issue was elegantly framed by one of the participants in the study who stated:

> I think there was a stage in my administration that I wouldn't turn a decision over to the teachers until I was sure that they were going to make the right one. I think one of the first steps when you start doing distributed decision making is choosing which ones you can feel comfortable with and it usually is the ones you know the decision they are going to make and you can live with it. I think we have gotten beyond that and I think there are times that they make a decision that isn't a decision that I would make. If it were really something that went against my principles and I thought it would harm children, then I would step in. (Cascadden, 1996, p. 125)

Even this participant, whom I felt was very committed to shared decision

making, felt a contradiction in enacting the role of the principal between empowering others and maintaining directive control. Empowerment was desired, but with distributed decision making came the possibility of a loss of focus and unity. To counteract this tendency, strong culture building was advocated, but a strong culture can limit or even counteract empowerment. This is an important issue and it has been delineated in the leadership literature.

Discussion in the Literature

The second wave of school reform emphasized empowering teachers via site-based management and decision making. In this restructuring, the administrator's role was reconceptualized to include an emphasis on "facilitating the development of school organizations that engage participants in collaborative efforts and shared governance" (Richardson, Short, & Prickett, 1993, p.30). As a response to this restructuring, some writers prescribed the normative use of goals, vision, values, and culture by principals to facilitate unity and school improvement in collaborative systems that use distributed decision making. In this regard, Leithwood, Begley, and Cousins (1994) stated:

> Research confirms the central role that the principals' goals play in understanding the source of effective practice. These goals form a central part of the vision principals use to bring consistency to an otherwise unmanageably diverse set of demands. Developing a widely shared, defensible vision is central to future school leadership. (p. 22)

Similarly, Robbins & Alvy (1995) described the concept of school culture as a powerful force.

> Within any organization, there is an "inner reality" (Deal & Peterson, 1993) or culture that influences the way people interact, what they will and will not do, and what they value as "right and rude" (Little, 1982). This inner reality reflects what organizational members care about, what they are willing to spend time doing, what and how they celebrate, and what they talk about. Because the way people interact daily or "do business" at a site dramatically influences its ultimate productivity for all members, culture is a powerful school improvement tool (p. 23).

Recognizing the importance of culture and learning how to use it for administrative ends was emphasized by some writers. Owens (1987) analyzed case studies and described the leader's powerful use of the normative function of culture by comparing educational administration to the leading of a clan:

> The clan is a useful metaphor for describing the structure, the "glue," that coheres the school's members. The nearly total socialization of the clan members is highly motivating; it legitimates the authority system and ensures predictable job performance without close, detailed surveillance by the hierarchy. (p. 26)

Sergiovanni (1987) noted the same powerful, normative power, but also noted that this normative power was limited in practice. In writing on purposing and empowering he stated:

> Successful leaders expect adherence to common values but provide wide discretion in implementation. They are outraged when they see these common core values violated. The values of the common core are the non-negotiables that compose the cultural strands, the covenant that defines the way of life in the school. On the other hand, the teachers enjoy wide discretion in organizing their classrooms, deciding what to teach, and when and how, providing that the decisions they make embody the values that make up this covenant. Successful schools are both tightly and loosely structured. They are tight on values and loose on how values are embodied in the practice of teaching, supervision and administration. (p. 124)

In a later work, Sergiovanni (1995) added a caveat that there could be a dark side to school culture as "strong cultures are committed cultures, and in excess, commitment takes it toll on rational action" (p. 111); he then also described the importance of "loyal opposition."

Reitzug (1994) captures this implied nuance well as he critically examined the role of culture in systems whose ultimate goal is empowerment and observed:

> Critical theorists argue that the role of the leader as manager of the organization's culture is, in effect, simply a different form of control, one that is manipulative in its subtlety and, in essence, more pervasive than traditional bureaucratic forms of control because it attempts to impact thought as well as action. (p. 285)

Maxcy (1991) also raised a similar concern about the writings focusing on leadership by culture, values, or morals, "there are several problems with this notion, not the least of which is the assumption that the principal is somehow invested with a moral superiority by virtue of his/her position as principal" (p. 123).

The differences between empowerment and manipulation can be subtle, but this distinction has been made a few times in recent decades. Owens (1991) analyzed Argyris' (1971) conceptions, and described how Type A Soft manager behavior that employs good human relations skills to get employees to buy into company goals is often confused with true

Type B leader behavior that emphasizes shared objectives, trust, and respect. Owens highlighted the differences between these two types of manager behavior using McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y.

Theory X posits that workers are lazy and need close supervision to be coerced by formal leaders to pursue organizational goals. Theory Y assumes that workers will exercise initiative and responsibility toward achieving organizational goals if work is satisfying and creative. Owens synthesized the ideas of Argyris and McGregor and stated that Theory X gives rise to Pattern A leader behavior which has two principal forms:

> Behavior Pattern A, hard, is characterized by no-nonsense, strongly directive leadership, tight controls, and close supervision;
>
> Behavior Pattern A, soft, involves a good deal of persuading, "buying" compliance from subordinates, benevolent paternalism, or so-called good (that is, manipulative) human relations.
>
> In either case, Behavior Pattern A, whether acted out in its hard or its soft form, has the clear intention of manipulating, controlling, and managing in the classical sense. (Owens, 1991, p. 49)

Owens contrasts this with Theory Y assumptions which give rise to Behavior Pattern B leadership "characterized by commitment to mutually shared objectives, high levels of trust, respect, satisfaction form work, and authentic, open relationships" (p. 49). It was noted that Pattern A soft is often mistaken for Behavior Pattern B, and this has caused much confusion.

Similarly Burns (1978) contrasted transactional and transforming leadership, where the former gains compliance through positive or negative rewards, while the latter appeals to and ultimately develops higher values of both leaders and followers. Couto (1993) noted that Burns' transforming leadership has been mutated into transformational leadership which is more like indirect, manipulative control. Couto asserted that the change from transforming to transformational leadership was not only a change from adjective to noun, but was a new and different view that focused more on what the leader does *to* followers instead of *with* them. Lost was the two way influence and instead organizational culture was emphasized to create increased motivation in followers to attain the leader's designated outcome and eventually to perform beyond their own as well as the leader's initial expectations. The transformational leader has transformed followers into more highly motivated followers who provide extra effort to perform beyond expectations of leader and follower (Couto, 1993 in Wren 1995, p. 104).

This transformational leader was not the same as the transforming

leader as originally described by Burns. This distinction, made by Couto, is similar to Argyris' distinction of Pattern A soft and Pattern B leader behavior.

In summation, it seems difficult for constructs promoting true empowering or transforming leadership to have implementation fidelity. Reitzug (1994) described a dilemma facing educational leaders that gets to the heart of this issue:

> Whether leaders mandate compliance with organizational goals (as in traditional perspectives of leadership), or whether they influence subordinates to embrace specific notions of organizational culture, the key issue remains the same: How do leaders know that the organizational direction suggested by their goals, values, beliefs and assumptions is the best one?... On the other hand, if leaders do not attempt to influence followers to pursue courses of action that they perceive to be correct, are they not shirking the responsibility for organizational direction? (p. 286)

For this author, this issue is key to understanding why previous proffered answers have not been effectively implemented. This issue also leads to a question for which Constructivist Leadership may be the answer.

The Question

In *Jeopardy*, the contestants are given answers and they must respond with a question. I often feel that a similar game has been played in the field of educational administration. Programs or constructs are offered as solutions to problems and the emphasis is on the answer and not on the question. This paper has emphasized the question. For if a question is not being posed, then an answer is not needed. In this case, I believe that a question has been posed. It is: "How can principals lead and empower at the same time?" I feel that this is a relevant question, and it is a question that both practitioners and theorists have posed. However, in order to answer this question, leadership may need to be reconceptualized. The construct of Constructivist Leadership with the shift in emphasis away from the skills and knowledge of specific individuals to building leadership capacity in organizations and communities may be the answer to the question. However, understanding this answer without exploring its corresponding question would be incomplete; and, if we are not careful in interpreting and applying this construct, empowerment may once again be mutated into manipulative, indirect control.

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Preparing for the Principalship:

Lessons from Other Professions

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Introduction

As efforts have been directed in recent years to identify more effective approaches to prepare school principals as educational leaders, there have been numerous attempts to identify ways in which other professions train newcomers. An area frequently suggested as one with great potential for offering important insights into school leadership development has been the approach used in the United States to prepare physicians. This "medical model" of professional preparation is selected because of its heavy reliance on clinical, or field-based, learning experiences, a feature often identified as an important strategy to be followed in preparing more effective educational leaders (Milstein, Bobroff, & Restine, 1991; Murphy, 1992). One additional aspect of the medical model which appeals to many reformers is the notion that doctors are typically prepared by spending time in "teaching hospitals" as a way to learn about effective practice. Aspiring school principals are rarely offered the opportunity to learn their trade in schools that are deliberately selected as examples of particularly effective practice.

Improvement of Practice is the Goal

A central assumption that is made throughout this paper is that the primary goal of any discussion such as the one advanced here is to find ways in which schools, and therefore student learning, can be improved significantly when better leaders are prepared. Often, analyses of the potential use of other professional and career development models to guide educational leadership become esoteric discussions of how we ought to do what is done in medical schools because that would be a more effective approach. There is a frequent suggestion in these discussions that the goal of administrator preparation refinement is to make the field "look good" by adopting standards and practices more consistent with other professions. That is not what is proposed here. Simply looking like more respected professions is not going to improve future school leaders' abilities to respond to the kinds of broad environmental demands that constantly affect what goes on in classrooms.

Let us assume that American doctors are well prepared for their work. Let us also assume, whether some may totally agree with some of their practices or not, that U.S. lawyers are effectively prepared to do what they do. And architects and priests are well prepared for their assigned future duties. School principals and other educational leaders, however, are at the receiving end of quite a bit of pointed criticism which suggests that, contrary to the worlds created by other American professionals, schools are in bad shape because they do not have strong, effective leadership. Let us assume, then, that some professions are functioning reasonably well, but that schools are receiving some well-deserved criticism. If that assumption is true, we need to devote considerable attention to developing more school leaders who will have a positive impact on the teaching and learning process. Borrowing some ideas from other professional development models with a better track record may be a good beginning point in our reform and renewal efforts.

In the long run, however, the suggestion is not made here that simply looking more like medical schools will automatically assist us in creating more effective school principals. Appreciating the nature of a variety of alternative career preparation models may be a good start at finding ways to enhance our own efforts. Therefore, the discussion presented here is not meant as an absolute solution; it is designed to serve as a stimulus for further inquiry into the ways in which people are made ready to serve as effective educational leaders.

Limitations on the Medical Model

While it is likely that adopting some elements of the ways in which physicians are prepared may benefit the formation of educational leaders, simply adopting that single model is not a complete answer to reform. Research related to the needs of beginning school principals (Daresh, 1986; Weindling & Earley, 1987; Daresh & Playko, 1993, 1994) has noted consistently that novice administrators need to acquire skills associated with the technical aspects of their jobs (*What do I do, now that I am an administrator?*), socialization skills (*What am I supposed to look like and act like, now that I am an administrator?*), but most importantly, self-awareness skills (*Who do I look like, now that I am an administrator?*)

More specifically, beginning school leaders need to be able to articulate clearly their own sense of values, priorities, and vision for how to serve the organizations in which they will serve as leaders. In other words, "knowing oneself" is viewed as an even more critical responsibility than knowing "how to do the job, or fitting in on the job" (Daresh, 1996). Adopting the medical model of career development is likely to address only the first two issues, namely, how to acquire technical skills and how to become more adequately socialized into a new professional role. The model does little to address the critical issue of developing a personal ability to articulate values in the context of leadership responsibilities. In fact, this lack of attention to personal ideology development is cited as a deficiency in the medical education by practitioners of that field:

> Medical education in the United States today takes people who enter the system filled with humanism and idealism and ultimately forces them to surrender these ideals by the very process that turns them into technically competent and intellectually capable physicians....
>
> None of this makes sense. Humanism and idealism are qualities we should demand in our physicians, qualities we should be building on, not destroying as a consequence of the training process. Producing physicians who see their primary job as serving mankind is possible, but accomplishing this goal will take major changes in the current system of medical education. (Marion, 1991, pp. 267-268)

Other Professional Models

In light of the criticism of relying too heavily on the medical model as "The Answer" to improving the preparation of educational leaders, it

may be possible to identify other professions which have developed preservice models which might offer greater promise in our field. In this regard, one may consider at least three other field, namely architecture, law, and the priesthood as areas where technical skills, socialization, and self awareness might be addressed in a balanced fashion.

Architecture. In the first century, B.C., the Roman architect Marcus Vitruvius Pollio, articulated a set of principles which remain in effect today as guiding values for the field of architecture. These *Ten Books of Architecture* (as translated by Morgan, 1914) include a set of assumptions of Vitruvius to guide the education of architects of the future:

> The architect should be equipped with knowledge of many branches of study and varied kinds of learning, for it is by his judgment that all work done by the other arts is put to test. This knowledge is the child of practice and theory.... In all matters, but particularly in architecture, there are these two points—the thing signified, and that which gives it its significance. That which is signified is the subject of which we may be speaking; and that which gives significance is a demonstration on scientific principles. It appears then, that one who professes himself an architect should be well versed in both directions.... Let him be educated, skillful with the pencil, instructed with geometry, know much history, have followed the philosophers with attention, understand music, have some knowledge of medicine, know the opinions of the jurists, and be acquainted with astronomy and the theory of the heavens. (Morgan, 1914, pp. 5-6)

These ancient descriptions of the educational needs of architects may not be quite what we think of today in terms of essential background skills. After all, most modern architects have relatively little need to study endocrinology! On the other hand, the insights of Vitruvius remain consistent with the current expectations on the roles and responsibilities of architects. This field of study makes great demands on individuals to take the abstract visions of others as clients and mold these views into concrete reality in the form of buildings. When an architect is commissioned to design a new office building or house, what he or she is really being asked to do is create a work space or a living space, not simply craft an edifice from bricks, mortar, and steel. In many ways, the role of the architect may have much in common with the school principal who is expected to take dreams, visions, and abstractions and create a learning environment.

The complexity associated with architecture as a field of practice is reflected by the frequent efforts made over the years to find effective ways to prepare future professionals. As a result, there are now several

different models followed in the United States to guide the preservice preparation of future architects. The traditional approach involves a five-year undergraduate program leading to a Bachelor of Architecture degree. Increasingly, other models which emphasize the post-baccalaureate (graduate) level of architecture preparation are becoming more common. For example, a number of universities now offer such designs as the "4 and 2" program which involves a four-year undergraduate program which may lead to the receipt of a baccalaureate in such fields as "Environmental Studies" or "Architectural Studies." This degree is then followed by a two-year Master's degree program leading to a Master of Architecture. In other cases, the preparation of future architects is viewed exclusively as a function of graduate level university work, where candidates are admitted to academic programs after completing undergraduate degrees in a wide range of areas which may or may not be directed at architecture.

The critical issue to be understood in the preparation of architects is that, like the preparation of future physicians, a model which includes academic preparation at a university, coupled with a very strong emphasis on field-based learning. This actually begins to some extent during graduate school, when students enrolled in architecture programs are expected to spend approximately one full year enrolled in something called the Design Studio (Cuff, 1993), or a planned academic experience where students are expected to develop plans and submit them for intensive review by panels comprised of experienced practitioners and academics. After this phase of preparation, and after graduation from an accredited university, future architects seeking certification as a Registered Architect (*i.e.*, a person licensed by a state's architectural registration board to practice the profession of architecture) must also complete what are normally three-year internships while working under the supervision of experienced advisors in private firms. While becoming a Registered Architect is not necessarily a goal of everyone entering this field, it is a critical step for individuals who seek careers as designers of new buildings or alteration of existing structures since the registration process is required in each state to ensure public health and safety code compliance.

At the conclusion of the university program and internship, the aspiring architect must complete and pass all sections of a nationally-normed Architect Registration Examination (ARE). This is a four-day exam with individual parts that test an intern's competency in predesign, site design, building design, structural design, mechanical, plumbing, and electrical systems, materials and construction methods, construction documents, and services.

While at first review, one might question the appropriateness of looking at the world of architects as a guide to improving educational leadership preparation, the argument may be advanced that the two professions have much in common. For example, both require the practitioner to bring together knowledge, skills, and practice derived from a wide array of different fields of study. The architect, for example, must know about physics and law; the school principal needs a background in finance and personnel management and child psychology. Even more relevant, however, is the fact that in many ways, the precise goals of both fields are often difficult to appreciate. The architect builds buildings and the principal administers a school, to be sure. However, both professionals are charged with much more intangible duties such as the creation of a desirable living space for the architect, and the creation of a learning community for the principal.

Law. Lawyers in the United States are prepared in a manner consistent with the mandated curriculum of the Supreme Court of each state and the American Association of Law Schools (AALS). After receiving a baccalaureate from an accredited undergraduate institution, aspiring attorneys are expected to perform well on the Law School Admissions Test (LSAT), then apply to and be accepted by a law school accredited by the American Bar Association (ABA). What follows is typically a three-year full-time commitment to studies at a law school where the first year is devoted to studies which follow a highly prescribed curriculum. Second and third year students enjoy the opportunity to choose from a variety of elective courses consistent with individual goals and interests.

Campus-based academic courses are designed largely with the goal of assisting students to learn how to "think like a lawyer." The extensive use of case studies has long been viewed as an effective strategy to promote the kinds of analytical skills which serve as the center of much of what the effective attorney must do on the job. However, contrary to many other models of career preparation, preservice preparation of lawyers has no absolute mandate for student involvement in clinical learning experiences. One's receipt of the Juris Doctor (J.D.) degree and successful performance on the state bar exam is not dependent upon successful completion of an internship or residency. Some individuals become lawyers through the study of law, with no prior practice in the field. Such cases are rare, because it is increasingly understood that individuals who have been able to show some form of solid prior experience in the field on their resumes will have a better chance of finding employment in a job market that continues to be overcrowded.

Once a law student has completed the prescribed course of study in the law school of choice, he or she receives the Doctor of Law academic degree. In most states, however, she or he may not yet be called a lawyer, a title reserved for those who have formally been admitted to the bar. With few exceptions, states require successful completion of a bar examination developed and administered by the state bar association. This examination is a written assessment which is directed toward assessing whether or not candidates are able to interpret case and common law correctly, and demonstrate their ability to make effective use of legal principles acquired through instruction at the law school (Gerber, 1989).

American legal education is an efficient process designed in large measure to be a way to ensure that aspiring attorneys receive a comparable educational experience across the country, and that there is at least minimal compliance with standards established in individual states and the nation for understanding of a basic knowledge base for lawyers. On the other hand, there is little found in the preparation of most lawyers which focuses on fundamental issues of socialization to the profession of law, or assistance with acquiring a personal sense of what it means to be a lawyer.

Priesthood. There may be some important messages to be learned from the world of priestly preparation as they may be applied to the formation of future educational leaders. An examination of this career preparation model shows that becoming a Catholic priest in this country is considerably more sophisticated than simply "hearing a call from God."

Over the past 20 years, the preparation of Catholic priests has followed an increasingly professional and academic model (Mulvey, 1991; Wittberg, 1991). If we were to compare the preparation paths of priests to those followed by physicians, architects, and attorneys, there would be some similarities. For one thing, the preparation of priests is increasingly viewed as a post-baccalaureate experience; the most fundamental requirement for full admission to the seminary is now the undergraduate degree. There is no singular and universally mandated form of testing of all applicants to the seminary, as there is with law schools (LSAT) or medical schools (MCAT). On the other hand, seminaries do exercise rather extensive screening and admissions processes that go well beyond those used to permit students to enroll in many other graduate programs. When a man is admitted to the seminary, he is admitted to a graduate degree program normally leading to a master's degree in spirituality, divinity, or religious studies. Prescribed curricula which are approved by regional accrediting agencies such as North

Central are required of all students. Part of that curriculum also includes expectations for extended periods of field-based learning about the role and responsibilities of the priest. Seminary students spend several months at different times during their four- to five-year course of studies engaged in extended internships in local church parishes.

One area of the preservice preparation of priests is something called spiritual and personal formation, a process ignored in the preservice preparation of doctors, lawyers, and architects. Formation, whether it is defined in spiritual or personal growth terms, is a structured process to lead people through a review of personal values, ethical and moral stances, attitudes, and beliefs which may have a direct impact on one's ability to perform an assigned role in an effective manner. It involves a careful consideration of not only what to do in a new job or how to fit in while doing that new job. Instead, it involves a personal reflection on how the individual may be changed as a result of participating in a new job or professional role.

Reflections Across Professional Models

As we consider the nature of preservice preparation found in four different professional models, certain facts begin to emerge which have clear implications for the ways in which we go about the business of preparing people to become school principals or other educational leaders in the future. This article has tended to pull apart the different models to identify individual strengths and features. It is also possible to look at these approaches in a different vein. There are certain similarities which might have a great impact on the ways in which we try to look at leadership preparation for schools. There are four characteristics found in the model which may be explored: Focus, selectivity, commitment, and intensity.

◆ ***Focus***. Each of the models reviewed is directed toward a clear focus of preparing individuals to step into well-identified roles. People simply do not enroll in law school, go to architecture or medical school, or enter the seminary as a form of "career exploration." No one goes into any of the professions noted here as a kind of "back up" in case some aspects of their current jobs are not satisfying.

Many proceed into principal preparation programs "just in case" there is an opportunity to find an administrative position sometime in the future. Professors of educational administration hear students proclaim that they "really do not want to be principals...but this is a way to get a masters degree." Or people complete certification programs to get

a license or certificate in the event that just the right opportunity for just the right job in just the right place may appear at just the right time in the future.

♦ ***Selectivity***. A feature of all four models examined here is they exercise great selectivity in terms of student selection and retention and clinical sites. Further, the programs themselves, including the institutions which provide them, are subject to considerable scrutiny and selection.

Student selection. Students are not permitted to enter any of the four preservice programs presented here without a good deal of review by the staffs of each institution. In addition to required standardized examinations such as the LSAT or MCAT, interviews are also required. All programs subject applicants to a wide array of screening devices to determine entrants' likely success in the professional school in terms of prior knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values. The sense of student selection and admission in most professional schools is guided by the strong belief that, once a person is admitted, he or she will complete a program of studies and assume rightful membership in the profession. The institutions view themselves as part of the professionalization process. It is a matter of consequence when a person completes a medical school, architectural school, law school, or seminary and steps out with the endorsement of that preparation institution.

Student selection in a large majority of school administration preparation institutions is different from what is described above. To be sure, some universities exercise comprehensive approaches to screen and admit applicants for programs. Graduate Record Examination (GRE) or Millers Analogy Test (MAT) scores are expected to be high, interviews are held with applicants, the number of admitted students is carefully limited to a number which can be adequately advised by faculty, writing samples and references are required, and past academic records are examined. Goal statements of applicants are reviewed to determine fit between candidates and programs. Not surprisingly, these are the kinds of institutions which appear as exemplary efforts (Murphy, 1993).

By contrast, other educational administration programs exercise little or no screening of applicants, particularly at the certification or masters levels. Often, the only apparent quality sought by faculties is that candidates would have a pulse, possess sufficient financial resources, a completed baccalaureate degree, and the ability to complete the paper requirements for entrance. This "batch feed" approach to student selection appears inspired by the plaque on the Statue of Liberty which invited the "huddled masses" to our shores. Explanations for why

this is so range from the self righteous (*e.g.*, "Since we are a public university, we are not elitist by denying access...") to the practical (*e.g.*, "We must keep up enrollments to make certain that FTE production does not look bad") to the downright cynical (*e.g.*, "My job is to teach, their job is to learn what I teach. Students who can't do the job shouldn't be here.")

Admissions processes are often most open at the certification and masters levels, while universities often pride themselves with the rigorous review to which applicants for doctoral programs are subjected, with the rationale being that in order to keep program standards high and enrollments small in advanced classes, you need bodies in other classes to "pay the bills." Unfortunately, the majority of individuals stepping into administrative posts in the nation's schools for the first time do so with a masters degree, not a doctorate.

Clinical site selection. Medical students and interns are not sent out to learn medical practice in any available hospital, or to look over the shoulder of randomly-selected physicians who just happen to be "available" and willing to have doctors-in-training pick up a "few tricks of the trade" from them. Seminarians are not sent out randomly to work with any available local priest in any parish that happens to be handy. And the architectural firms that employ interns are carefully selected places where the standards of registered architects are constantly reviewed.

In cases where field-based activities are part of administrator preparation programs, little care is normally taken in the kinds of settings in which aspiring principals observe practice or learn from practitioners. The traditional restriction on finding better field placement sites for future school leaders comes from the fact that most individuals in administrator preservice programs are part-time students. By day, they are teachers who cannot get time off from work in order to visit better clinical learning sites. Thus, availability rather than quality serves as the chief determinant of field-based learning opportunities.

Program Selectivity. Medical schools, schools of architecture, law schools, and seminaries are all subject to careful periodic scrutiny by professional associations and other agencies which accredit their work. Further, the number of professional schools is limited in all states; there is a recognition that the public interests of clients (and the self interests of professionals themselves) may be compromised if too many physicians or architects are prepared at any time and the market becomes oversaturated with too many practitioners.

Few attempts have been directed over the years to ensure that some limitation has taken place on the number of educational administration preparation programs. More than 500 programs now currently exist across the nation, with little more than periodic reviews by state

education agencies serving as potential supervision of program quality. As is the case when state bureaucratic organizations become involved with program oversight, reviews are generally based on adherence to minimal standards rather than professional norms. As a result, the preparation of America's school administrators takes place in institutions which often are not held accountable to the standards of performance defined by members of the profession itself.

◆ ***Commitment***. At the conclusion of medical school, doctors take the Hippocratic Oath, a pledge of commitment and fidelity to the highest ideals of their profession. Lawyers swear an oath to uphold the Constitution of the state in which they practice. As part of the ordination process, priests swear fidelity to God, their bishops and pope, and to the priesthood in general. Architects make a declaration of commitment to the standards of their profession and the laws of the states in which they work. In short, all four professions require newly appointed members to make public statements of personal commitment to the ideals of their chosen fields of work.

New school administrators are not required to make a similar declaration of their commitment to the profession. Of course, administrators sign contracts which oblige them to respect and adhere to local policies and procedures. They must follow the legal dictates of their states, employing school boards, and administrative superiors. They need to heed all laws which define practice. But they make no outward pledge of allegiance to administration, the superintendency, or the principalship. No universal code of ethical conduct or practice is present, and no oath is sworn to such an ideal. A school principal does not have to make a public declaration that he or she will direct all attention to supporting student learning as a primary professional duty. By and large, school administrators are hired to do jobs specified by others. This fact differentiates school administrators from other professionals. Doctors, architects, lawyers, and priests maintain their professional status whether or not they are employed by any organization. A school principal is not a professional without a school, students and teachers to administer.

◆ ***Intensity***. The study of medicine, architecture, law, or the priesthood are all extremely intense activities. People pursue preparation in these fields on a full-time basis for the most part. People tend to enter professional schools as a group and remain with the same group throughout the remainder of their studies. And the period of time is limited and follows established patterns that are virtually the same nationally.

Again, differences are found between other professions and school administration. Those who pursue graduate programs leading to certification often follow part-time, sporadic programs which include a course or two every term or so, and frequently require five or more years to complete 30 to 40 semester hours of coursework, a fraction of what is required in other professions. With the exception of the increasing number of principal preparation programs that attempt to maintain cohorts of students going through programs together, the majority of universities allow students to meander through required courses as lone consumers.

Closing Reflections

So, what is the answer to how leadership preparation programs can be made better in the future? Clearly, the answer is not found in a wholesale adoption of a single professional preparation model. Nor does the answer lie solely in pinching a bit here and a practice there from several different approaches to other fields.

Perhaps the first thing that needs to be considered by those who would "reform" leadership preparation might be the desired goal or vision of educational leadership in general. Do we truly have in mind some solid notion of what it is we expect of our school leaders? If we do not consider this issue above all others, is there any sense in proceeding with discussions of how to make preparation programs better? Whether it is always consistent with what the public wants, physicians, architects, lawyers, and priests are prepared in ways consistent with the self-perceptions of what these roles are supposed to do for society. However, similar clarity of purpose is often lacking in the minds of those thrust into the roles of principals and superintendents. Are they to be instructional leaders, or merely enforcers of sound business management techniques? Those who would improve the nature of leadership development must invest time and effort in discussions of this fundamental issue of purpose before deciding to restructure programs with mentoring, cohorts, problem-based learning techniques, and all other activities recently proposed as improvement approaches (Daresh, 1997).

A second issue implied in this review concerns the nature of control over preparation programs. If we find some consensus about what administrators ought to look like, can we begin to move forward with discussions of who ought to be responsible for creating that vision? Too often, reformers have spent energy engaged in an effort to point out that improvement will take place only if practitioners alone assume the role of leadership developers. Or, universities develop "visionary" reform

efforts by noting that, in the future, practitioners ought to be invited to work with professors to give input into what universities do to prepare leaders. Neither approach is likely to be effective. The formation of school leaders must be conceptualized as a process where individuals who aspire to serve as leaders are truly at the center of the formation process, and resources are made available from both universities and the field. It is not simply enough to make it look like we are preparing school administrators as others do physicians and priests. Rather, we need to adopt the view of other professions that truly places the preparation process at the center of other activities. Our educational turf battles often obscure the notion that, if education is to improve, the preparation of educators must be a central concern for all.

Finally, perhaps the most fundamental and important thing which needs to be done is to begin to think more as if educational administration is, in fact, a profession. And if it is, do we really value school leadership as a way to increase the effectiveness of schools? We use the words, but do we truly mean it? If we did, we would probably see many changes taking place rather rapidly. In the meantime, as we work toward that new vision, perhaps the best we can do is to select aspects of the models that others follow, and use the best practices of many. In the final analysis, reform takes a lot of hard work and commitment as well as tough choices. There are no simple answers.

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Practicing Leadership:

Differential Effects from Administrative Field Placements

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Introduction

Programs that prepare future school administrators are once again (or perhaps always) under fire. Four main criticisms are typically cited: the ease of gaining admittance to these programs, their lack of rigor and coherence, their inappropriate pedagogy, and the inadequate opportunities for linking theory and practice (Anderson, 1991; Bartell & Birch, 1993; Cooper & Boyd, 1987; Murphy, 1993; Murphy & Hallinger, 1987). Although most professional preparation programs, such as medicine, dentistry, architecture, and law, require apprenticeships in which students gradually acquire and perfect their skills, such internships have not been the tradition in educational administration. The lack of administrative field experiences increases the difficulty of helping students unite theory with practice (Anderson, 1991; Milstein, Bobroff, & Restine, 1991) and creates few opportunities for students to develop their own administrative theory of practice (Shapiro, 1993).

The California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) (1995) recently established new standards for administrative preparation pro-

grams to address some of the shortcomings cited above, but providing adequate field experiences remains a challenge. School districts and universities can establish an intern program, but there are no financial incentives for districts to form such partnerships, especially ones which support candidates full-time to perform administrative duties while they are earning their certification (Milstein, 1993). Most candidates for the Preliminary Administrative Services Credential (ASC) in California remain full-time teachers. Field experiences are generally limited to after-school projects such as preparing a staff handbook, observing the collective bargaining process, or attending a school-site council meeting. Although such projects can provide valuable experiences, they do not give students a sense of the totality of skills and demands of a principalship. The new CTC Standards press districts and universities to provide "intensive experiences both in the day-to-day functions of administrators and in longer-term policy design and implementation" (CTC, 1995). The challenge for administrative preparation programs is to find ways to give future administrators opportunities to practice leadership in real school settings.

The purpose of this article is to present the findings from an experiment at the University of California, Santa Barbara to expand the field experiences of ASC candidates by using the summer to place students in either year-round (here after referred to as Group A) or summer school (Group B) settings. This article describes the context of the two administrative field placements, explains the methods of data collection and analysis, presents the findings from the two groups of students, and concludes with a discussion of the implications of the findings for designing field placements where candidates develop, practice and refine their leadership skills.

Context of the Study

In January of 1994, first-year ASC students were notified that their eight units of field experience would be completed in the summer in a year-round school. The personnel director of a district with year-round schools was contacted to find possible sites. The initial plan was to place all of the ASC students in this district. Several students, however, indicated that the traveling time to and from the district would create a hardship. These students took the initiative to find alternative placements closer to home. The alternative placements were "acting principal" for summer school. As the coordinator of the program, I was concerned that the summer school experience, while better than the previous after-school practicum projects, would not provide the same

quality of experience as working in a regular school program. Given the voluntary and experimental nature of this first year's endeavor, however, it seemed appropriate to accommodate the students' needs.

In the summer of 1994, three students assumed *assistant principal* roles in a district with year-round schools (Group A). Four students, Group B, served as *acting principals* of summer schools. One of these students served as a district intern supervising two sites; the three others worked under the guidance of a site principal, but in fact had considerable autonomy in the day-to-day administration of the program.

Preparation for the Internship

To help the students identify and plan various administrative tasks, I prepared and distributed an *Administrative Field Experience Handbook*, which outlined the new state administrative standards. The handbook suggested possible leadership activities related to each standard and provided a pre- and post-rating system for assessing competencies under each standard. Students reviewed the handbook, assessed their own current level of experiences and skills, and, with the supervising administrator, identified tasks and experiences that would address areas of greatest need.

For the Group A students assuming positions in the year-round schools, I scheduled an introductory meeting with the students and their principals on the first day of their field experience. Expectations were discussed, copies of the handbook were distributed, and then principals and students left for their schools. All Group A students were placed in elementary schools for four weeks.

For Group B, I held individual meetings with supervisors of two of the four summer school principals to review the handbook and clarify expectations and duties. No meeting was scheduled with the third student serving as a district intern, whose supervisor was the district personnel director. However, the personnel director was given a copy of the handbook. The press of time also precluded an initial meeting with the supervisor of the fourth summer school principal, but a meeting was subsequently held to review and evaluate the student's experiences. All Group B members also were placed in elementary schools. The summer school session lasted five weeks with the principals on site five hours a day.

Methodology

Qualitative methods were used to explore two research questions: (1)

In what ways did the field experience give students' the opportunity to practice leadership and management skills? and (2) In what ways were the learning opportunities in these two settings (year-round school or summer school) similar or different? To answer these two questions, I collected and analyzed a variety of data. Each student kept an activity log and a journal and used them to reflect on their experiences. Students also collected documents illustrating their experiences (which were later included in their portfolios that serve as part of the ASC evaluation process). In addition, students attended bi-weekly debriefing seminars, which were either video or audio taped. Questionnaires assessing the quality of the field experience were collected from both students and supervisors.

Data Collection and Analysis

I collected and analyzed the journals from both groups in three different ways. First, I used the ten ASC Standards established by the CTC (1995) as a framework to categorize the types of administrative duties that students reported doing. My objective was to see the range of activities in which the students engaged. Second, through a domain analysis, I identified the main issues that seemed to concern the students. Third, I compared the content of the journal text to examine the quality and nature of the student's reflections.

Another phase of the data collection involved reviewing the student portfolio documents as evidence of the types of activities they had undertaken during their field placement. I also viewed video tapes of the reflective sessions primarily as a basis for triangulation with findings from the journals. Finally, I compiled the evaluations and used the data to draw some conclusions about the effectiveness of the field experiences. The remainder of this paper discusses the findings from analyzing these documents and presents some suggestions for strengthening the administrative field placement.

Findings

The original assumption guiding the development of this program was that the year-round setting would provide an administrative experience that more closely matched ASC expectations and standards than would the summer school, with its shorter day and less complex program. An analysis of the data, however, indicates a different pattern. The data showed that the students in the two settings differed in: (1) the range of activities undertaken; (2) the amount of collaborative planning and

problem-solving; (3) the opportunities to test, refine, and receive feedback on initiatives; and (4) the extensiveness of their reflection-on-action.

Range of activities. The activity logs and journal entries indicate that summer school student principals took part in a wider range of activities and had experiences covering more of the CTC Administrative Standards. These differences are shown in the comparison of Table 1, Year-Round Student's Log of Activities, with Table 2, Summer School Student's Log of Activities. As can be seen in Table 1, this student, typical of Group A, focused primarily on management of school functions (*i.e.*, handling student discipline, developing schedules, solving problems, identifying community resources). Group A completed some informal classroom observations and observed in other areas, but their actual practice centered largely around discipline issues. In contrast, as shown in Table 2, this Group B student was involved in a wide variety of activities, and, in particular, had more opportunities for problem solving and initiation of activities that addressed a variety of the standards.

When students were asked to keep a timed log of their activities, again striking differences emerged when comparing Group A with Group B. The year-round student principals did far more observing than doing. Through the observation process and carrying out of assigned tasks, two of the year-round student principals earned the confidence of the site principal. Toward the end of their field placement, both of these students were asked to serve as "principal for a day" while the principal was away. These data suggest that the students in the year-round placement would in time have carried out the same range of activities as the summer school principals, but more time was needed to accomplish the same level and range of work experience.

Collaborative planning. In *Reshaping the Principalship* (1994), Louis and Murphy stress the need for principals to lead from the center and create collaborative planning and decision-making (p. 266). The new CTC standards call for "each candidate [to develop] the ability to facilitate shared decision-making among members of the school community" (CTC, 1995, p. 45). The literature and standards suggest the need to consider how teachers, who have worked primarily in isolation, can be provided experiences that will develop collaborative skills needed as future administrators. The analysis of the journals showed that three of the four Group B members (except for the one who assumed the job at the last minute), were involved in planning the summer school program collaboratively with the other teachers. In addition, Group B reported more opportunities to engage in problem-solving. For example, to relieve a problem of over-crowding in a primary class, one summer school

Table 1
Year-Round Intern's Log of Activitites

Date	Activity	Standard 21: Educational Leadership	Standard 22: Organizational Planning	Standard 23: Instructional Planning	Standard 24: Managem. of School Functions	Standard 25: Human	Resource Administration	Standard 26: Fiscal	Resource Administration	Standard 27: Legal and	Regulatory Applicaitons	Standard 28: Policy	and Political Influences	Standard 29: School	Community Collaboration	Standard 30:	Uses of Technology
6/22/94	Supervised 6th grade picnic				x												
6/23/94	Morning playground duty				x												
	Discipline sessions				x												
	Noon playground/ cafeteria duty				x												
	Bilingual transition meeting			x													
	Bus duty				x												
6/24/94	Playground duty (A.M.)				x												
	San Miguel School Tour				x												
	Lunch duty				x												
6/27/94	Playground duty				x												
	Discipline referrals				x												
	Discipline intervention on S.H. class, lunch and playground duty				x												
6/28/94	Lunch and playground duty				x												
6/29/94	Playground duty				x												
	Discipline referral				x												
	Lunch duty				x												
	Bus duty				x												
6/30/94	Trained staff to use Xerox copier	x															
7/1/94	Administrator in charge/disc.				x												
7/5/94	Administrator in charge/disc.				x												
7/6/94	Reviewed Internship Handbook	x															
	Organized 4 of July Sing Fest.				x												
	Playground/recess duty				x												
7/7/94	Teacher evaluations					x											
7/11/94	Administrator in charge/disc.				x												
	Took notes at staff meeting					x											
	Taught class 1 hour				x												
7/12/94	Picked up printer					x											
	Use of rooms					x											
	Discipline referral				x												
7/13/94	Communicated w/social worker				x												
	Evaluation of teacher					x											
	Critique of meeting/ problem sol.	x															

Table 2
Summer School Intern's Log of Activities

Activity	Standard 21: Educational Leadership	Standard 22: Organizational Planning	Standard 23: Instructional Planning	Standard 24: Managem. of School Functions	Standard 25: Human Resource Administration	Standard 26: Fiscal Resource Administration	Standard 27: Legal and Regulatory Applicaitons	Standard 28: Policy and Political Influences	Standard 29: School Community Collaboration	Standard 30: Uses of Technology
Attended orient. mtg. at HS	x									
Assisted with paperwork				x						
Learned attendance procedures							x			
Lunch duty				x						
Resolved stud. & teach. probs.				x						
Classroom presentations	x		x							
Disc. world hist. curric.	x		x							
Assist. getting stud. to class					x				x	
Visited classrooms	x									
Watched Barry's style					x					
Discipline issue				x						
Museum visits		x		x					x	
Researched retirement issue							x	x		
Discussed Ed. Leadership	x									
Met w/ Behaviorial Specialist				x	x		x			
Discipline issues				x					x	
Classroom issues	x			x						
Resolved duty problem				x						
Observed class	x									
Met with teacher			x							
Met with parent									x	
Fire drill memo sent				x			x			
Class observation and discussion	x		x							
Discipline			x						x	
Classroom observations	x									
Met with district administrators	x						x			
Resolved discipline issue				x					x	

principal collaboratively organized a cross-age tutoring program. Another student, concerned with unifying the staff and reaching out to the community, organized a program to have students decorate, for the local supermarket, over 600 grocery bags with illustrations of the school's theme, *Signs of Summer*. Given the short planning time for summer school, another student principal identified numerous community resources and helped the teachers access these to enrich their program.

The fourth principal helped the teachers identify their areas of strength and planned a program so that all students rotated through these specialty classes. Opportunities for creative leadership, planning or problem-solving with teachers did not occur for Group A in the year-round settings.

Testing and refining ideas. All the students tackled challenging tasks, but Group A members were not able to follow up or to receive feedback. For example, during a debriefing session, a student in the year-round school shared that she had been given the task of preparing the duty schedule for the year. Since this was a four-track school with teachers and students coming and going, the task was a complex one, and each draft she submitted required considerable modification because a new decision rule was introduced after each round. In her reflection, she shared how she might handle the schedule if she were the principal. She recognized the need for a more collaborative process from the beginning; however, there was no opportunity for her to do the task differently, nor did she receive feedback on the final product.

In contrast, Group B students had more opportunities to try out ideas and get feedback. For example, one summer school principal was having trouble with rudeness and trash during the brunch break. She wrote in her journal: "The major focus for the day was creating an all school assembly to discuss brunch behavior. A suggestion made at my UCSB class yesterday had created the seed of an idea that was to germinate into a successful assembly and an important insight." She received feedback in the form of positive praise from the teachers and the brunch duty aides for the assembly, an improved brunch situation, students making extra efforts to pick up trash, and an increased awareness of her problem-solving skills.

Depth of reflection. The journals of the students in the summer schools indicate more extensive and reflective writing about their roles and responsibilities. Comparing journal entries in the areas of discipline illustrates differences in the ways the two groups of students reflected and analyzed their experiences.

Group A Year-Round School Student Journal Entry:

6/22: *Between 9:30 and 10:00, I sat in while (the principal) discussed rules and discipline methods with a fourth grade student who had been spraying paint from a silver can with no label. She reviewed the school's policy with this young man, then told him she was either going to suspend [him] or give him an alternative punishment. I don't know the outcome of the student conference.*

Group A Journal Entries:

6/29: *Sat in on 2 disciplinary actions. Problem-Solving: teachers not*

happy with assembly; kid didn't bring detention slip back; teacher note about child misbehaving.

7/11: *Discipline of after school fight*

Group B Summer School student Journal Entries:

7/8: *Today I also had an encounter with a parent regarding a fight between a 1st and K student.... I had both boys come in and talked to them regarding fighting. Since no adult had witnessed the incident the boys were not sent home for the day, but the parents were both called and they were told that if the boys fought again, they would be sent home.... One of the parents called this AM very upset about a message the other mother had left on her machine.... I explained that right now it was the boys' job to be responsible and accountable for their behavior at school and that the school's job was to help them.... This experience has made me aware of how important it is to separate school issues from home issues and to help students be accountable for their behavior; and to not let my personal judgment interfere with dialogue with a parent.*

7/12: *A conversation with another intern, triggered my thinking regarding the overall issue of discipline. I took some time to go back over some of the referrals and am beginning to gain some startling insights: I need to sit down and develop a concrete philosophy regarding discipline for myself. My experience at the two different campuses has me vacillating between hard nose types of consequences and natural consequences. My baseline is always discipline with dignity; however, at LP there is an unspoken message that discipline needs to be punitive in nature—send the kid home for the rest of summer school rather than finding ways to redefine or reframe the context for struggling students. If I were to do summer school again I would develop a much clearer framework for discipline since none exists for the program. (The student goes on to enumerate many issues to consider and ideas for implementation).*

Group B Journal Entry:

6/6: *Today a SELPA [Special Education Local Plan Area] teacher approached us with four boys. He explained that they had scratched bad words on the metal box behind his classroom near the sixth grade garden....andwere spitting on the side of the building. The [supervising] principal immediately took over the situation, talked to the boys, called the ring leaders' parents and had the boys show us the "vandalism." Upon seeing the scratched box and spit-on wall, (the principal) told the boys that they would have to scrub both areas.... I like that she called the parents to ask them for their support at home. Approaching parents from that position is positive and I believe that by asking for support, parents are willing to help build a bridge between them and school. What I really liked was the punishment that the students received. I think that schools in general—particularly my regular site—are too punitive.*

Under the standard *Management of Schools* (CTC, 1995, p. 45), the ability of each candidate to manage student behavior in ways that "maintain a positive and safe school climate" is one of the factors to consider. The journals indicate that all of the student principals were involved in student discipline issues; the entries, however, indicate that Group B thought about the immediate discipline problem in the broader context of a safe, positive school climate and examined their actions in terms of a future context. Less reflection in the journal entries of the year-round principals, Group A, may indicate that these students felt less in control and a need to defer to the principal's judgment.

Discussion

Although the sample size is small, the evidence—journal entries, logs of activities, the discussion in the reflective sessions, and evaluations—indicates that Group B had more opportunities to practice aspects of the CTC Standards than Group A. Three factors help to explain the differences in experiences: (1) self-selection of the principalship site; (2) involvement in program planning, and (3) the nature of summer school.

Self-selection of field placement site. Group B selected their sites and were known by the supervising principals. In three cases, the summer school student principals were known by many of the teachers and were familiar with the schools. In contrast, the personnel director made the placements, using Group A's resumes. Although all of the year-round students established good rapport with their supervisors, the short time frame did not allow them to establish an immediate working relationship that facilitated the student principals assuming significant administrative duties. A quick entry was further limited by the students' lack of prior knowledge of these large, complex schools and their teaching and support staff.

Involvement in program planning. Group B became involved in the planning process for summer school before it began. They had an opportunity to participate in or to observe the selection process for staff and to meet with the teachers prior to the start of summer school to plan. They assumed responsibility for securing resources and supplies and for contacting parents about summer school arrangements. They became involved in a limited way with some of the responsibilities of opening and closing a school, thus addressing one of the criticisms of administrative field placements (Milstein, 1993).

Another factor contributing to the differential experiences of the two groups was the degree of familiarity with the schools. Group A did not have an opportunity to ease into the job, visit their sites, or meet their

supervising principals prior to the start of the field experience in the year-round schools. The students joined just as one track was completing the academic year and another track was beginning. Their journal entries indicate they witnessed the complexity of this year-round transition, but they were not actively involved in the process. In addition, during two site visits, the students and supervising principals acknowledged that closing the school year for one track and beginning the year for another limited the time they had available to orient the students in this initial week.

Summer school or year-round? Both the summer school and the year-round setting provided an experiential learning environment which, coupled with the journal writing and debriefing sessions, met the criteria of Kolb's (1984) theory of experiential learning. "This theory contends that people learn from their experiences through four interrelated phases: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation" (Barnett, 1987, p.68). The field placements provided the concrete experience. The journal writing gave students an opportunity to reflect on their experiences, while the debriefing sessions fostered opportunities for abstract conceptualization. A major difference between the two settings, however, was the opportunity for active experimentation. The more relaxed nature of summer school—fewer children, less teachers, a shorter day, and a definite beginning and ending—created a climate where the site administrator was willing to let the students (Group B) *be principals from the beginning*. This meant that students had the opportunity to bring issues and problems they were facing to the debriefing session, get feedback, and then return to their site to experiment or try again.

In contrast, the year-round placements gave Group A opportunities to shadow the principal, observe daily routines, and gain insights into the range of tasks and scope of work, but provided limited hands-on experiences. The year-round placements, however, provided opportunities for learning about the complexity of managing large, four-track elementary schools serving primarily low-income, limited-English-speaking students. The year-round supervisors took time to talk extensively with the students about their work and the issues they faced, but they knew their student assistants would be there only four weeks. It was not feasible to delegate significant ongoing responsibilities in such a short time frame or allow students to take much initiative. This meant that Group A had few opportunities to actively experiment or "retest" their new learning in the same way as Group B.

Implications for the Future

The evaluation data from both the year-round and the summer school administrative field placements indicate the receiving schools and supervising administrators benefited from having the students on their campuses. In addition, the students felt the experience was valuable, and the enthusiasm by students and supervisors bodes well for continuation and further development using the summer as a time for field placement. The systematic evaluation of the field placements suggests several important lessons that we will use to guide future efforts:

1. Summer school placements will be pursued as a definite option.

2. Year-round school placement will also be continued as an option but with several modifications, such as:

   a. Hold an orientation and planning session with the university and the site supervisors to identify key activities under each standard for the students to pursue within the time frame of the field experience.

   b. Involve all students in selecting their sites for the field experience.

   c. Have the students spend several half days at the site prior to beginning the official field experience to increase knowledge of the site, ensure a smooth entry, build a working relationship with the principal, and develop an experiential plan that allows for the greatest degree of active involvement.

   d. Extend the time of the field experience to at least six weeks.

3. Add a weekly theme to the debriefing sessions that addresses one of the standards, such as multicultural education or instructional program, and have students collect data on the supervising principal's leadership and school practices in relation to the theme.

4. Initiate a more interactive journal process and share journals at the weekly debriefing sessions to help students make a stronger link between their espoused theories, their theories-in-use, and the theories of practice of both the students and their supervisiors.

5. Have students develop a platform or mission statement in regard to each standard in order to connect theory and practice (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993).

Although the administrative field experience of most ASC candidates is far from optimal, using summer time, and especially summer

schools and year-round schools, provides students more opportunities to practice leadership skills and gives students a more realistic picture of the principalship than the previous after school administrative projects. The summer school provided the student principals opportunities to practice and develop a wider range of administrative skills, but as one student said when she became a full-time principal, "Summer school is not the *real world* of a principal, with its frantic pace, teacher supervision requirements, and mounds of paperwork." The year-round schools are more like the *real world*, but time and strategies for quicker entry are needed to ensure that student principals not only observe but also practice leadership.

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Unleashing the Power of the World Wide Web in Educational Administration

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Introduction

One single, yet ubiquitous aspect of the technological revolution is the Internet's World Wide Web (WWW). As a public computer network of networks, it is considered the best available networking infrastructure for the education community by educators using it and by officials making policy concerning it (Quey & Stout, 1993). As a global web of networked computers, the Internet provides access to information and resources worldwide. The World Wide Web's use of graphics, video, and audio make the Internet easier to use and have popularized this telecommunications phenomena.

As the largest "virtual library" in the world, the World Wide Web has important and relevant significance for educational administration preparation programs. Agencies and institutions directly and indirectly related to education have joined the Web. Each has judged the World Wide Web as an appropriate venue and forum to extend organizational information, interaction, and influence. These include the U.S. Department of Education, Library of Congress, the U.S. Senate and House of

Representatives, the U.S. Census Bureau, and individual state agencies, among others.

Professors in educational administration also recognize that our field is dynamic, shifting, and must continue to change and expand if it is to remain "vibrant, alive, and useful" (Achilles, p.164). The applicability of the World Wide Web to educational administration preparation programs is unavoidable. The Web has the potential to energize and revitalize learning in educational administration. The learning process can be enhanced by the World Wide Web, when the Web is utilized as a dynamic and interactive resource.

Web Highlights

Major national initiatives have echoed the sound of change that is upon us. The Telecommunications Act of 1996 emphasized the driving principle that "schools and classrooms...should have access to advanced telecommunications services." Even Bill Clinton's 1996 Presidential Initiatives includes one aimed at connecting every school and library in the United States to the information superhighway by the year 2000.

It is estimated that there were fewer than 100 sites on the Web in 1993. By late 1995, there were over 48,000 web sites around the world (Illingworth, 1995). A study by the Pew Research Center estimated that 12 million Americans subscribed to an on-line service accessing the World Wide Web by 1995. Another two million homes were connected directly (Trotter, 1996). Still others who don't personally subscribe to the Web have access at work or school. Even three years ago, *Time* magazine proclaimed that the Internet was the place to be with 20 million users and increasing by a million new users a month (Elmer-Dewitt, 1993).

The actual web sites are developed, electronically posted, and maintained by a variety of organizations, associations, businesses, groups, and individuals. The content of web sites varies widely based upon the purpose and goals of the host organization or individual. Each strives to address their organizational or personal goals by designing and offering appropriate content in their web sites. Education professionals may rely on a variety of sites operated by established, respected, and highly-regarded organizations. Many have multiple applications to the profession and provide expansive content, and sometimes interactive-searchable options.

Educational Administration Applicability

With the wealth, vitality, and currency of the World Wide Web offerings, it's capacity for enhancing professional programs for educa-

tional administrators is already being tapped. The benefits of harnessing the power of the World Wide Web in education were summarized by Berenfeld (1996). The seven benefits he specifically identified enhance the educational program include:

(1) Bringing real life relevance to learning;
(2) Helping students perceive knowledge as constructed;
(3) Providing a model for lifelong learning;
(4) Meeting emerging standards for inquiry-based learning;
(5) Increasing authenticity of the learning environment;
(6) Increasing equity; and
(7) Providing networking opportunities with experts and expert data.

The use of the World Wide Web can be all of this and more when professionals in the field appropriately apply the Web to learning in educational administration.

The Web and "Ways of Learning"

High quality instructional programs have moved well past the notion of learning in the traditional model of professors as the purveyors of knowledge or leaders of discussions, and students as passive receivers. The merging of exemplary World Wide Web sites into the Educational Administration (EA) knowledge base requires more than matching the two, and hoping that learning takes place.

Educational methods and techniques that extend learner's previous experiences, link theory and practice, encourage reflection, and facilitate the transfer of knowledge from one situation to another are critical to the learning process (Lankard, 1995). A closer look at additional "ways of learning" are important for the professor investigating and contemplating the use of the World Wide Web in instruction. Action learning, situated learning, problem-based learning, and incidental learning are a few of the "ways of learning" complimented by the World Wide Web.

The concept of *active or action learning* isn't new. It is at least as old as Socrates, and was more recently revived by John Dewey. This "learning by doing" process emphasizes that the desired outcome is the learning itself. The World Wide Web provides access to sites, programs, and processes at the touch of the keyboard. Opportunities to investigate, compare and contrast, and collaborate globally are a few of the activities available. Students learn by "doing" on the Web. They can investigate a recent education decision by the Supreme Court, word-by-word. Or they can track legislation affecting education, including political representatives' positions on such legislation.

Problem-based learning challenges students with a hypothetical situation. Used primarily in the instruction of medical students, it has recently appeared in educational administration preparation programs. Pioneered in educational management classes by Edwin Bridges (1992), the World Wide Web is an excellent resource for student activity and learning. The comprehensive nature of the Web provides students with a virtual library of resources from which to develop solutions for problems and challenges faced in education. Accessing up-to-date information from the Library of Congress, the Council for Exceptional Children, or the National Clearinghouse of Bilingual Education is only a keystroke away.

Another emerging method, called *situated learning*, focuses on adults and the workplace. Knowledge and skills are presented in the context in which the knowledge will be used in real life. A core belief is that knowledge is fundamentally situated, not independent. The knowledge becomes a product of an activity, context, or culture in which it is acquired (Lankard, 1995). The World Wide Web provided EA preparation programs with a real-life context, which will be a learning environment for administrators far longer than the length of the preparation program itself. The very nature of current, relevant, and authentic web sites makes the Web a powerful place for situated learning. Web sites such as the U.S. Department of Education, U.S. Census Bureau, Global Schoolhouse, and the White House provide authentic environments for situated learning.

Incidental learning is elusive and unintentional. Defined as a spontaneous action, the intention is task accomplishment, but which serendipitously increases particular knowledge, skills, or understanding (Lankard, 1995). Simply stated, the learner discovers something while in the process of doing something else. Learning from mistakes and experimentation are part of incidental learning. Certainly the "baptism-by-fire" that new administrators experience is part of this incidental learning process. As the network-of-networks, the comprehensive scope of the Internet's World Wide Web serves as an electronic playground for incidental learning. In the process of fulfilling directed learning activities, students can discover and linger in web sites related to the directed topic(s). Investigating curriculur standards, for example, may lead a student to discover information on the Web regarding effective school practices.

The learning process can be energized by the World Wide Web when the Web is utilized as a dynamic, up-to-date, and interactively sequenced resource. Connecting the knowledge base to the experiences of students, and delivering relevant, applicable, primary and secondary information enhance the Web's usefulness in the profession.

Knowledge Base in Educational Administration

In order to successfully utilize the World Wide Web in the preparation of school leaders, consideration must be given to not only the "ways of learning," but also to the Web's applicability to the "knowledge base" in educational administration. The knowledge base has been defined as a taxonomy of competencies and skills (National Policy Board for Educational Administration); or a body of knowledge, method of inquiry, and intentionality influenced by additional factors of position, philosophy, and context (Achilles, 1993); or a matrix which integrates experience and literature by focusing on the culture of schools, school problems, and educational administration disciplines (Petrie, 1993). Even individual state licensing agencies have defined standards, competencies, and other capacities.

In order to integrate the World Wide Web into leadership preparation programs, an abbreviated list of knowledge base categories is proposed in Table 1. This matrix highlights the work of Achilles (1993) and Petrie (1993). In no way does this represent a final culminating conclusion of the EA knowledge base debate. The debate is diverse and complex. What is proposed here is a clear and easily understandable EA framework by which professionals in the field of educational administration may implement World Wide Web applications into their own individual preparation programs, alongside their own perspectives and beliefs of the EA knowledge base.

Table 1
Twelve Categories
of the Educational Administration Knowledge Base

Leadership	Curriculum	Law/Policy
Human Relations	Student Services	School Finance
Learning Theory	Personnel	Community Collaboration
Administration of Special Programs	Technology	Diversity/ Multiculturalism

Web Site Highlights

Several web sites are repeatedly recognized by colleges, schools,

organizations, and associations in the field of educational administration for their usefulness and the extensive resources they provide. These can be considered the "best of the best." The following are highlights of web sites directly related to educational administration that represent the diversity of the resources available. The name of the web site is underlined. The URL (Universal Record Locator) follows in brackets. This URL or address allows users to go directly to this web site. A brief summary of the web site features the purpose and contents of the web site. Finally, the category of the educational administration knowledge base for which this web site is most useful is indicated by the notation •.

◆ *ERIC: Ed. Resources* [http://www.aspensys.com/eric/]
Established in 1966, the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) is a national information system designed to provide users with ready access to an extensive body of education-related literature. At the heart of ERIC is the largest education database in the world—containing more than 850,000 records of journal articles, research reports, curriculum and teaching guides, conference papers, and books. Each year, approximately 30,000 new records are added. Users can read and download information on the latest education trends and issues. Users can direct education-related questions to AskERIC and get a response from an education specialist within 48 hours.

• ALL 12 facets of EA knowledge base

◆ *Education Week* [http://www.edweek.org/]
A comprehensive K-12 education information source, calling itself, "American Education's OnLine Newspaper of Record." Includes articles and searchable database from issues of *Education Week* and *Teacher Magazine*. Also includes professional opportunities, Issues Pages on key education issues, an on-line "Bookshelf," and daily education news from the nation's best newspapers.

• Leadership • Curriculum • Student Services
• Personnel • Law/Policy
• Community Collaboration • Diversity/Multiculturism

◆ *NCREL's: Pathways to School Improvement*
[http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/pathwayg.htm]
North Central Regional Educational Laboratory's Pathways addresses critical issues identified by educators, researchers, and community leaders. National leaders in each area provide practical, research-based solutions to issues. Contributors to Pathways come from America's leading educational research centers and universities. Pathways contains a variety of articles, graphics, movies, and sound files, as well as extensive links to other exemplary Internet resources for education.

• Community Collaboration • Curriculum
• Leadership • Learning Theory • Student Services

◆ *THOMAS: U.S. Legislative Information* [http://thomas.loc.gov/]
Acting under the directive of the leadership of the 104th Congress to make Federal legislative information freely available to the Internet public, THOMAS' World-Wide-Web-based system was brought on-line in 1995. The web site includes Bill Text, Congressional Record Text, Bill Summary & Status, Hot Bills, the Congressional Record Index, and the Constitution. The database has search capabilities. Other features on the web site include Congress This Week: Floor Activities, and Committee Reports. A new category entitled "Historical Documents" adds more historic Congressional documents to the THOMAS home page. In addition to the Constitution are the Federalist Papers, Declaration of Independence, and Constitutional Convention and Continental Congress broadsides. All historic documents are searchable, as a collection, and are also individually searchable and browsable.

- Curriculum
- Student Services
- Personnel
- School Finance
- Administration of Special Programs
- Law/Policy

◆ *National Educational Service* [http://www.nes.org/]
Provides practitioners and community members, parents, and policymakers with the practical, timely information needed to positively effect the lives of children and youth—especially those in conflict with family, peers, and school. NES goals are to create safe and drug-free schools, encourage even the most discouraged youth, prevent violence and acts of aggression, reclaim "at-risk" students, teach adolescents to be responsible for themselves, set up effective alternative programs, and promote respect for racial and ethnic diversity.

- Student Services
- Curriculum
- Administration of Special Programs
- Community Collaboration
- Diversity/Multiculturalism

◆ *Family Education Network* [http://www.familyeducation.com/]
This web site is designed as an on-line community center for parents with children up to age 18. The Family Education Network's web site offers a combination of news, resources, information exchange, legislative tracking, projects, health resources, and various other on- and off-line activities related to education. Parents can take part in family-oriented Internet excursions, engage their children in fun learning programs, and connect with other parents to share their experiences.

- Community Collaboration
- Leadership
- Student Services
- Human Relations

◆ *Web66: A K12 World Wide Web Project* [http://web66.coled.umn.edu/]
Just as U.S. Highway Route 66 was a catalyst for Americana, this project views the World Wide Web as a catalyst that will integrate the Internet into K-12 school curricula. The Web66 project is designed to facilitate the introduction of this technology into K12 schools. Project goals are (1) to help K-12 educators learn how to set up their own Internet servers, (2) to link K-12 WWW servers and

the educators and students at those schools, and (3) to help K-12 educators find and use K-12-appropriate resources on the WWW.

- Leadership
- Curriculum
- Technology

These seven web sites were highlighted with discussion and content notes for their value and direct application to the knowledge base in educational administration. All have multiple applications to the profession.

Criteria for Web Site Selection

Selecting appropriate web sites for use in student learning may be eased by adopting criteria for web site selection. Filter through available web sites to discover their *appropriateness* for integration into courses, seminars, and field work. Answering "yes" to the following questions will confirm a web site's suitability.

1. Does the web site support the instructional content, goals, and purpose of the learning experience/course?
2. Is the web site updated regularly to assure current information?
3. Is the web site hosted by an organization/individual with a reputation and track record you respect?
4. Will the use of the web site compliment multiple "modes of learning" for students?
5. Does the web site offer something more than what can be gained in a text, article, or classroom experience?

These suggestions should assist professionals in sifting through the tremendous web growth and selecting high-quality, useful web sites for educational administration preparation programs.

"Cyber"-Fieldtrips

Using the Web in instruction can appear to be a daunting task. However, one suggested activity is developing "Cyber"-fieldtrips. These are pre-developed activities designed by professors in educational administration. It not only introduces students to relevant web sites in educational administration, but assigns activities/questions/experiences to students which can only be answer in their voyage on a "Cyber"-fieldtrip.

The strength of instruction via a "Cyber"-fieldtrip relates to the previous discussion of the "ways of learning." The use of "Cyber"-fieldtrips can accentuate each of the four "ways of learning": active/action

learning, problem-based learning, situated learning, and incidental learning.

The following are examples of "Cyber"-fieldtrip *segments*. These segments highlight some of the best web sites currently available, and also anchor Web activities to specific categories in the knowledge base. Knowledge base categories follow the headings in brackets [ ]. Note: Answers from the web sites are indicated by italics.

◆ *U.S. Department of Education [Law / Policy].*
Although education is a process of the state, the federal influence in educational policy cannot be overlooked. One aspect of federal policy influence is from the executive branch of the federal government. Visit the *U.S. Department of Education's web site* [http://www.ed.gov/]. Under their "Welcome" section you'll find general information. What year was the Department established?

1. _____ *1980*

Of the seven components in their official mission statement, which do you determine would provide the most opportunity for the Department to influence educational policy?

2. _____
_____
_____

Strengthen the federal commitment to assuring access to equal educational opportunity for every individual;
Supplement the efforts of states, the local school systems, and other instrumentalities of the states, the private sector, public and private nonprofit educational research institutions, community-based organizations, parents, and students to improve the quality of education;
Encourage the increased involvement of the public, parents, and students in Federal education programs;
Promote improvements inthe quality and usefulness of education through Federally-supported research, evaluation, and sharing of information;
Improve the coordination of Federal education programs;
Improve the management of Federal education activities; and
Increase the accountability of Federal education programs to the President, the Congress and the public.

◆ *The White House [Technology-Law / Policy]*
The President also influences education. The White House Web site is comprehensive and well-developed. Visit the *White House web site* at: [http://www.whitehouse.gov/WH/Welcome.html]. Presidential initiatives are viewable by clicking "The President and Vice President"; then to "Office of the President"; then to "Presidential Initiatives." Go to "Educational Technology Initiative." The Initiative aims to connect every school/library to the Information Superhighway by what year?

3. _____ *2000*

Which of the President's Four Pillars do you think will have the most influence on your school/district technology efforts?

4. _____

I. Modem computers/learning devices will be assessible to every student.
II. Classrooms will be connected to one another and to the outside world.
III. Educational software will be an integral part of the curriculum—and as engaging as the best video game.
IV. Teachers will be ready to use and teach with technology.

◆ *House of Representatives [Law/Policy]*

Visit the *United States House of Representatives web site* [http://www.house.gov/]. What is the name of the committee under which general educational issues are addressed?

5. _____

Committee on Economic and Educational Opportunities

What is the name of the sub-committee under which K-12 educational issues are addressed?

6. _____

Sub-Committee on Early Childhood, Youth and Families

◆ *American Association of School Administrators [Leadership - Community Collaboration]*

Many organizations and associations provide leadership to members and serve to influence education. Locate and visit the web site of the *American Association of School Administrators* [http://www.aasa.org/index.html]. Move to "Legislative Alerts," then to "April 16-Parental Rights." Why did AASA take a position opposing the Parental Rights and Responsibilities Act (S. 984)?

7. _____

The bill imposes Federal control over local school affairs;
The bill is an enormous, unfunded mandate: the attorney's fees alone could run well into millions of dollars;
The bill curtails the authority of locally-elected officials to make decisions regarding school curricula and local educational policy, and gives that authority to judges;
The bill overturns state compulsory education laws and prohibits state regulation of home schools.

◆ *THOMAS [Law/Policy]*

Acting under the directive of the leadership of the 104th Congress to make Federal legislative information freely available to the Internet public, a Library of Congress team brought the THOMAS World-Wide-Web-based system online in January 1995, at the inception of the 104th Congress. Visit *THOMAS* at [http://thomas.loc.gov/]. By clicking on "By Topic" under the Bills section, you will be given a choice of topics to review. Click on "Educational Policy." What will

be the "new" educational policy proposed by H.R. 4134 and does a student's previous school enrollment affect the policy?

8. _____

_____

Authorize states to deny public education to aliens not lawfully present inthe United States who are not enrolled in public schools during the period beginning September 1, 1996, and ending July 1, 1997.

◆ *Judicial [Special Programs - Curriculum - Diversity]*

The *United States Judicial Branch Resources web site* is located at [http://lcweb.loc.gov/global/judiciary.html]. The purpose of this site is to function as a clearinghouse for information from and about the Judicial Branch of the U.S. Government. Go to "U. S. Supreme Court Decisions." Find the court case entitled: *Lee v. Weisman*, 505 U.S. 577 (1992). Yes, you're on your own in finding it. Briefly, what was the dispute, and how did the Supreme Court decide?

9. _____

Prayer at a graduation: Not legal.

◆ *Education Week [Curriculum - Student Services - Personnel - Community Collaboration]*

Education Week on the Web states, "Our goal is nothing short of being the place on the World Wide Web for people interested in education reform, schools, and the policies that guide them." Visit this site at [http://www.edweek.org/]. Select "The Archives." Searching for the term [educational policy] for "since 1996," how many "hits" or listings did you get?

10. _____ *141*

At the bottom of this page, click on "Next screen of results." Select the article "5/1/96—Minnesota Student Leaders Push for Place at Policy Table." Review the article and be sure to scroll down to the bottom of the article for the BOLDED words "educational policy." What does the Minnesota Board President say about the student drive?

11. _____

_____

Even though some of the students' suggestions may not be embraced by state education leaders, teachers' unions, or other groups, said Jeanne Kling, the president of the state board, the student drive to become more involved in education policy is an excellent learning experience in itself.

Practical Advantages of "Cyber"-Fieldtrips

Recognizing the power and potential of the World Wide Web in educational administration instruction has advantages which were discussed earlier in this paper. However, there are specific *practical* advantages to a professor utilizing the web via "Cyber"-fieldtrips:

- Extensive "technological/computer" knowledge on the part of the professor is not required, only familiarity and purpose of the web sites for review.
- A classroom computer lab is not required. Students may perform and complete required Web activities outside the presence of the instructor—at home, office, library, or college computer lab.
- Since the activities and web sites are specified in the "Cyber"-fieldtrip, students are reviewing exact sites and information determined by the Professor to be highly related to course goals and objectives.
- Student performance is easily determined by clear and manageable questions on the "Cyber"-fieldtrip.
- When students perform "Cyber"-fieldtrips on their own, they may take longer to investigate designated web sites, take "side-trips" to other related web sites, or simply need more time to complete the assignment based on their own learning curve.

Conclusion

The World Wide Web provides a rich tapestry of resources for professors and practitioners. A massive amount of resources currently exist on the Web, and much more will continue to be developed and posted in the future. Matthew Gray (1996) estimates that the web currently contains an estimated 230,000 web sites, and will double in under six months.

There are several ways to find out "*What's New*" on the web in educational administration. Remaining knowledgeable about new offerings on the web is always a challenge. Four suggestions may assist interested professionals in this regard.

First, established web sites often maintain a category entitled "other resources," "hotlinks," "related web sites," or similarly named site. A regular review will provide excellent referrals to new listings.

Second, educational journals and newsletters are beginning to feature web sites related to the profession. These sometimes include an annotated listing of each web site and location.

Third, students are excellent explorers once introduced to the World Wide Web. Keeping instructional activities focused on content and goals of the course allow students to seek and discover resources in addressing course content/purpose.

Finally, other colleagues in educational administration programs may share their favorite web sites. This provides the opportunity for

collegial dialogs concerning web sites and specific instructional application techniques.

This paper focused on the use of the World Wide Web and "Cyber"-fieldtrips in educational administration preparation programs. It discussed and promoted an alliance between the educational administration knowledge base and the dynamic, and somewhat overwhelming capacity of the World Wide Web. Imparato and Harari (1996, p. 17), in discussing the web, revealed that,

> This environment, where information on anything can be available instantaneously, unsettles the foundations of our previous ideas while it raises questions about lines of authority, the value of hierarchy, the nature of relationships, the role of management, and the proper use of information.

It is critical, therefore, that professionals in the field of educational administration preparation provide leadership for this all-encompassing transition. The experience and capacity of future and current educational leaders can be energized and revolutionized by preparation programs which embrace the World Wide Web's capacity and applicability in the profession.

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Administration Induction Plan Assessment:

Relating Academic Preparation to Performance Skills

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Introduction

The latest revisions in the California Education Administration Program Standards require each university to establish an *individualized induction plan* (IIP) for newly admitted candidates to the 24-unit Professional Administrative Credential (Commission on Teacher Credentialing, March, 1995). The IIP, a creation of the Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CTC) to support newly appointed administrators, necessitates assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the candidates as a prerequisite for planning professional growth activities. Each candidate for the credential, along with a faculty member and a school district representative, collaborate on developing an IIP targeted to improving specific knowledge and skills.

The Education Administration faculty at California State University, Fresno (CSUF), along with an advisory committee of local superintendents, adopted a comprehensive evaluation system for meeting the standard, requiring for each program candidate: (a) scores achieved in an assessment center; (b) scores achieved on a comprehensive university knowledge-base

test; and (c) results from the most recent district performance review.

The knowledge-base test and assessment center results achieved by the first 12 candidates have been collected. The purposes of this study were to: (a) establish benchmarks from the data on student performance; (b) address basic questions regarding the inter-relationships among program course content and assessment center dimensions; and (c) establish a data bank for student and program development needs.

Background for the Study

Recent changes in the California certification requirements for school administrators require that each newly appointed administrator enroll in a university-sponsored personalized professional development program. The university faculty is responsible for preparing an IIP for each credential candidate at the beginning of the program based upon assessment information. CSUF faculty established an initial course entitled *Induction Plan*, with a requirement that each Professional Credential candidate: complete the Professional Development Inventory (PDI), an evaluation completed in the assessment center established by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP); take a faculty-developed, knowledge-based assessment test; and review the most recent performance evaluation received from a district supervisor. These three data sets provide the information upon which a faculty member, the candidate, and a district representative develop the IIP.

Methodology

Twelve students have now completed the first two assessments. Credential program faculty are currently examining the data collected, along with the supervisor evaluations, as a means of developing the IIP. The following describes the assessment instruments, research procedures, and preliminary findings.

Instrumentation. The PDI is a one-day assessment center established by NAESP, whereby individuals are assessed on 13 essential skills after completing a number of administrative simulations. The skills assessed include Planning, Organizing, Problem Solving, Creativity, Decision Making, Systems Analysis, Vision, Communications, Instructional Leadership, Group Leadership and Team Building, Climate Development, Moral Responsibility, and Instructional Analysis and Supervision. Each of the skills is assessed at three different points in 12 sets of simulations. The assessment scoring also requires assessors to score the candidates on eight different knowledge areas including Curricu-

lum, Instruction, Evaluation, School-Community Relations, Personnel, Law, Finance, and Organization Development. The 12 simulations require candidates to complete a lesson analysis; debrief the lesson with the teacher; handle encounters with students, teachers, and others; resolve a serious conflict case; and process several in-basket items.

A team of trained assessors later evaluate video tapes prepared by the candidates, while engaged in interactive situations, as well as other materials developed by the candidate. The assessor materials are sent to NAESP for scoring, and a 20-page summary is returned in approximately 10 days. The detailed summary of results includes a profile of individual scores compared to those achieved by experienced principals. The Knowledge-Base Assessment Test was created by the faculty members teaching 16 different courses in the Education Administration program. The courses include eight Preliminary Administrative Credential courses: (a) Educational Statistics; (b) Research Methods; (c) Advanced Educational Psychology; (d) Management; (e) Leadership; (f) Instructional Supervision and Improvement; (g) Site-based Leadership; and (h) Curriculum Development and Evaluation. Eight Professional Credential courses are also included: (a) School Law and Policy; (b) School-Community Relations; (c) Education Finance; (d) Personnel; (e) Economics of Education; (f) Facilities; (g) Systems Analysis and Design; and (h) Special Education. Each faculty member prepared a list of 15 multiple choice items believed to represent a core of knowledge for each course and important to field-based practitioners. A discriminant analysis of the items within each discipline served to identify a representative sample of 10 questions from each. The final instrument, therefore, consisted of 160 items from the faculty-created knowledge base.

Population. The candidates for the pilot study were 12 recent applicants for admission to the re-designed Professional Administrative Credential program. Two candidates were principals, five assistant principals, with the balance in various other administrative positions. The candidates were placed in the voluntary pilot program to provide the faculty the opportunity to observe assessments employed in the new program and to examine for relationships among the two data sets.

Data Collection Procedures. All 12 candidates attended the one-day assessment center together. The assessment center required approximately 10 hours to complete. The knowledge test was administered at a separate time. The original instrument, consisting of 240 items, required approximately three hours to complete. Since the knowledge-base test measures theoretical, legal, and political concepts found in courses and the assessment center measures application of administrative skills, some significant correlations between the two were expected because several

courses address skill application as well as theoretical conceptualization.

Data Analysis. Evaluation of the data involved standard descriptive statistics and Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients assessing the relationship between the eight scores achieved on each of the Preliminary Credential or the Professional Credential courses and the 13 skill areas or eight knowledge-base areas contained on the PDI. The purpose was to examine the variance among candidates on the assessment instruments and to evaluate relationships among the variables. Composite scores across groups of courses, assessments, and tests were also correlated to determine whether the total acquired knowledge the individuals had demonstrated is significantly related to skill performance.

Findings

The study produced the following findings:

1. Mean scores for the knowledge-base measures tended toward the middle of the scoring range and encompassed less than a third of the scale (Table 1). Standard deviations have a similarly limited range, the variance within and between the two data sets appearing to be fairly consistent. Individuals, however, produced a wide range of scores on nearly all measures as indicated in the final column in Table 1. Mean scores for the advanced courses were lower than for the preliminary credential courses, as expected, but no weighting or correction was applied to reflect item difficulty within the instrument or whether the student had taken the course.

Table 2 presents the descriptive data for the Assessment Center results. The mean scores achieved by the group cluster about the natural mean of 2.0 on a three-point scale and, again, the variance appears rather consistent. These scores provide an inflated illusion, however, as the data used in scoring assessment center results are based on norms established with experienced practicing administrators whose data are negatively skewed. The means of the normalized group are closer to 2.4, meaning the scores from the sample are not as high as they appear comparatively speaking. The results reported in this paper obscure this fact. When the candidates in this group received their scores from NAESP, they not only received raw scores, but also percentile scores comparing their scores to the normalized group. The percentile scores are not reported here, but the mean score of 2.0 would approximate the thirtieth percentile in most instances.

2. In the check on relatedness between knowledge acquired in courses and skills measured in the assessment center, scores achieved by these 12 enrollees in the Preliminary Credential courses and the assess-

Table 1
Descriptive Data for Course Results

Course	Mean*	S.D.	Range
Preliminary			
Educational Statistics	6.2	2.1	7.0
Research Methods	4.6	2.2	6.0
Advanced Educational Psychology	3.9	1.8	6.0
Educational Management	5.4	2.0	6.0
Educational Leadership	5.3	1.7	5.0
Supervision & Improving Instruction	5.3	1.7	8.0
Site-Based Leadership	6.4	1.9	6.0
Curriculum Design & Evaluation	6.2	2.3	7.0
Professional			
School Law & Policy	3.2	1.2	4.0
School/Community Relations	6.1	1.4	5.0
School Finance	5.3	2.1	6.0
Personnel	4.3	2.5	8.0
Economics of Education	5.7	1.8	6.0
Facilities	4.3	1.8	6.0
Systems Analysis	4.7	2.5	8.0
Special Education	5.5	2.5	8.0

*10-point scale

Table 2
Descriptive Data for Assessment Center Results

Skill	Mean*	S.D.
Planning	2.1	.41
Organizing	2.0	.43
Problem Solving	2.0	.45
Creativity	1.8	.37
Decisiveness	2.1	.38
Systems Analysis	1.9	.41
Vision	1.8	.43
Communications	2.3	.40
Instructional Leadership	1.9	.49
Group Leadership	1.9	.43
Climate Development	2.0	.56
Moral Responsibility	2.0	.34
Instructional Analysis	2.2	.49

*3.0 scale

ment center skills produced but one significant coefficient. This relationship, between Educational Statistics and Group Leadership and Climate Development, seems clearly artifactual. Scores on questions related to Professional Credential courses and assessment center results produced seven significant coefficients, all seemingly artifactual as well. Special Education course results correlated significantly with Creativity; both Personnel and Special Education course results correlated significantly with Vision; Special Education correlated significantly with Communications; Personnel correlated significantly with Instructional Leadership; and both School Finance and Special Education correlated significantly with Group Leadership. All correlation coefficients cited exceed the .01 level of significance.

Curriculum Development and Evaluation was the only course to correlate significantly with the assessment center knowledge base and that with Instruction and Evaluation. This correlation may not be artifactual because of the high face validity between the course and the assessment center variable.

The composite scores for the candidates on both the Preliminary and Professional Credential courses were correlated to composite raw scores achieved on the assessment center skill evaluations and the composite percentile scores on the knowledge-base. These coefficients appear in Table 3.

Table 3 reveals a significant correlation between the Professional credential test composite scores and the assessment center results beyond the .01 level.

The Pearson Product-Moment correlations between the Preliminary Credential test results and the assessment center results failed to reach significance at the .05 level. However, because of the exploratory nature of the assessment process and the small sample, a Spearman Rank-Order correlation coefficient between the composite scores from the knowledge-base test and the assessment center composite scores was

Table 3
Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients Between Composite Preliminary and Professional Credential Course Scores and Composite Scores Achieved on the Assessment Center Skill and Knowledge-Base Measures

Credential	Assessed Skill	Assessed Knowledge
Preliminary	.44	.45
Professional	.70*	.62

* $P < .01$

estimated. The Spearman Rho=.503 exceeded the .497 level of significance required at the .05 level. Therefore, the correlation between the accumulative knowledge-based test results across the courses in both the Preliminary and Professional credentials and the assessment center results revealed a significant relationship.

3. The data collected provides students with four data sets, scores achieved from the knowledge-base test designed to measure familiarity with the content in the eight Preliminary and the eight Professional Administrative credential courses, scores achieved on the 13 skill areas on the assessment center, and knowledge-base scores also collected in the assessment center. These four sets of data along with the administrator's most recent evaluation of their performance provides information for individuals to compare themselves to a normalized group and to plan a program targeting professional development activities as part of the advanced credential requirements.

Additionally, the faculty have data to determine where the students rank, compared to each other, on the knowledge-base test and compared to experienced principals with scores achieved in the assessment center scores.

Conclusions and Implications

The findings led to the following conclusions:

1. The mean scores on the knowledge-base test for the candidates were higher for courses in the Preliminary credential than those in the Professional credential, which is, perhaps, as it should be. All had completed the Preliminary credential requirements while eight of the 12 have yet to complete any Professional credential courses and only four had completed as many as three. The knowledge-base test results provide initial information that will increase in stability as the number of students admitted to the revised program grows. Reporting results using "z" scores enables individual candidates to examine their achievement in each of the 16 content areas and to compare their scores to others at the same point in career development.

The candidates had no idea as to what types of items would appear on the knowledge-based test and had no chance to prepare. The test provided an authentic opportunity for candidates to recall what had been previously learned. Given that some candidates had completed the Preliminary credential requirements nearly five years previously, they demonstrated ability on the test to retain substantial information.

The 12 individuals scored slightly below average, as a group, compared to their more experienced counterparts in the assessment center.

The assessment center results, again, provide the individuals with comparative data but, this time, opportunity to see their scores alongside those achieved by established, seasoned professionals.

2. The preliminary outcome of the study includes parallel observations that (a) any relationships between individual course performance and assessment center skills appear artifactual, but that (b) knowledge gained in overall course work and assessment center results are related. Stated differently, the candidates' course work are very poor predictors of skill mastery, course by course, skill by skill. But, higher test scores over all courses is a good predictor of better skill mastery in the assessment center. If, indeed, the assessment center simulations parallel on-the-job experience, accumulated knowledge from courses appears to be the best predictor of administrative success.

The results reflect an orthogonal relationship between course content and skill application. Academic understanding, therefore, does not automatically translate into high job performance. Accordingly, the university faculty may desire to place greater emphasis on job related skills in the curriculum while simultaneously encouraging increased accumulative knowledge of those completing both programs.

3. The pilot study provides excellent feedback to individuals on both the knowledge-based test and assessment center results. While relationships between the accumulative knowledge from both credentials and assessment center results were significant, the Professional Administrative Credential program has a greater relation to direct job application as indicated in assessment center results than does the Preliminary credential. Since the Professional Credential builds upon accumulative knowledge obtained in the Preliminary Credential, this finding should not be surprising. The study supports the importance of accumulative knowledge as well as skill application. By blending the CTC requirement of course work and professional development activities, the individuals have an excellent opportunity to tailor the IIP to specified needs.

The study does underscore both the importance of the recent revisions made by CTC to the advanced credential and the need for the faculty to continue carefully assessing the professional capabilities of the candidates at the beginning of the final phase of university work. With the study results, the faculty has additional information to assist candidate performance in entry level positions.

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A Constructivist Approach to the Authentic Assessment of Educational Leadership Students

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Introduction

The notions of constructivist learning and authentic assessment are the underlying concepts in the California State University Hayward (CSUH) Educational Leadership preparation programs. In the spring of 1995, we began to implement a revised assessment system with one group of students. This student authentic assessment system incorporated characteristics of constructivist learning both in its intent and design.

The concepts of constructivism and authentic assessment, when applied to the measurement of leadership capacity, are fraught with challenges. Educational leadership programs seek to prepare individuals to lead America's schools in ways we have yet to agree upon. The answer may lie in the marriage of these two important concepts.

The assessment of students in preparation programs for educational leadership should incorporate the principles of constructivist learning. When learning is viewed as an internal process, students create meaning of their experiences.

Many authors of educational reform speak of the importance of

creating a shared sense of meaning. Sergiovanni (1992) describes "leadership through purposing" (p. 72) as an approach that provides meaning and sense. Participants in successful school improvement efforts engage in reflective practices that lead to constructing their own meaning of their situations. This new-found meaning provides the basis for improved decision making which influences the practice of the school's personnel. Deal and Peterson (1990) further emphasize the importance of leadership in "identifying the link between values and purposes in local schools..." (p. 88). Lee states that, "...sense making is the meanings or interpretations individuals attach to their experiences [that are]... developed in social contexts through social mechanisms, such as various forms of communication and interaction" (p. 85).

Constructivist Learning

Lambert (1995, p. 17) provides several principles of constructivist learning that support its application to the assessment of educational leadership students:

- Knowledge and beliefs are formed within the learner.
- Learners personally imbue experiences with meaning.
- Learning is a social activity which is enhanced by shared inquiry. Learners play a critical role in assessing their own learning.
- The outcomes of the learning process are varied and often unpredictable.

Walker and Lambert (1995) state that constructivist learning is "based on assumptions from community of learners theory, students construct meaning from personal values, beliefs, and experiences. The development of personal schemas and the ability to reflect on one's experiences are key theoretical principles" (p. 9).

Authentic Assessment

Traditional methods of assessment of student learning are not sufficient to address the purposes and outcomes successfully. Barnett (1995) examined discussions of current assessment practices in educational leadership. He found that the common proposition is the inclusion of dynamic displays, or visible exhibitions of student performance. Authentic methods of assessment, as proposed by Wiggins (1992) and others for K-12 schools, can serve as guideposts for students of educational leadership. Barnett (1995) defines authentic assessment as, "attempts to capture what is learned during experiential activity...as ways to ascertain how people behave in a real-life or simulated learning situation" (p. 199).

The more traditional methods of assessment, such as numerical or letter marks or student written work, do not result in multiple forms of evidence to determine mastery of important leadership competencies. What is more important is that such measures do not allow for students to make sense of or develop meaning of the assessment because they are externally developed.

Authentic Assessment Based on Constructivist Principles

We must examine the effectiveness of our present assessment processes to allow students to develop their own meanings of leadership. We should develop student assessment systems based on constructivist principles that produce personal significance and utilize authentic performance measures. CSUH includes the following components in this effort:

Student Self and Peer Assessment—The outcomes of such an assessment would result in students:

1. Understanding their learning processes better;
2. Identifying professional strengths, values, and behaviors;
3. Identifying areas of professional development needs;
4. Receiving feedback; and
5. Being given an opportunity to synthesize learning.

Evidence of Achievement—A constructivist authentic assessment system should include evidence that would be used to:

1. Determine degree of mastery of body of learning;
2. Demonstrate competence (performance-based);
3. Provide documentation of addressing program competencies;
4. Give evidence of proficiency;
5. Provide opportunity to synthesize learning;
6. Give feedback to student and teacher; and
7. Determine whether outcomes and values of program have been achieved.

One cohort of CSUH educational leadership credential candidates each year has organized itself into teams, each of which worked to develop its unique assessment system. Students grouped themselves in different ways. Some groups based their membership on geographic proximity of their communities. Others formed group according to the districts where they worked. Students were free to select the individuals with whom they wanted to work. The only limit in the formation of groups was a size limit between four and five members.

The assignment called for the creation of a system of assessment to be implemented in a day-long activity by the end of the spring quarter.

Practicing administrators and other faculty members subsequently participated in the summative exercise.

Students in the educational leadership program are organized into cohorts. Each cohort remains together for a sequence of three quarterly courses with one university instructor. The culminating activity for the cohort was the implementation of the assessment system students developed. This effort is now in its fourth year.

Students received instructions to include the following in their assessment systems:

Purpose—Students were to list specific purposes of the assessment activities based in part, on literature they read on authentic assessment practices. In addition, a group of students made a presentation to the class on alternative assessment approaches.

Description of Components—Students were to describe what would occur during the assessment. Students received examples of possibilities including: exhibitions, portfolios, interviews, in-basket scenarios, and writing exercises.

Criteria for Assessment—Students were to provide all criteria that would be used in the process of assessment. Students received examples of the criteria used to evaluate leadership that included: the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing competencies (1995), the National Policy Board for Education Administration (NPBEA) competency domains (1993), and the Educational Leadership Profile of the Department of Educational Leadership (1996).

Process—Students were to describe the sequence of activities in their assessment systems. These were to be followed during the final assessment activity.

Evaluation—Students were to describe how their performances and knowledge were to be evaluated and the documentation to be used. Portfolios formed a part of the assessment process. Students determined the specific format and contents of their portfolios. Each team provided required documentation of student mastery.

Products: Students provided a list of products that the instructor was to receive upon the conclusion of the assessment activity. These included: portfolios and rubrics with evaluative criteria, interview questions, in-basket scenarios, and other evaluation instruments.

The Development of an Educational Leadership Assessment System

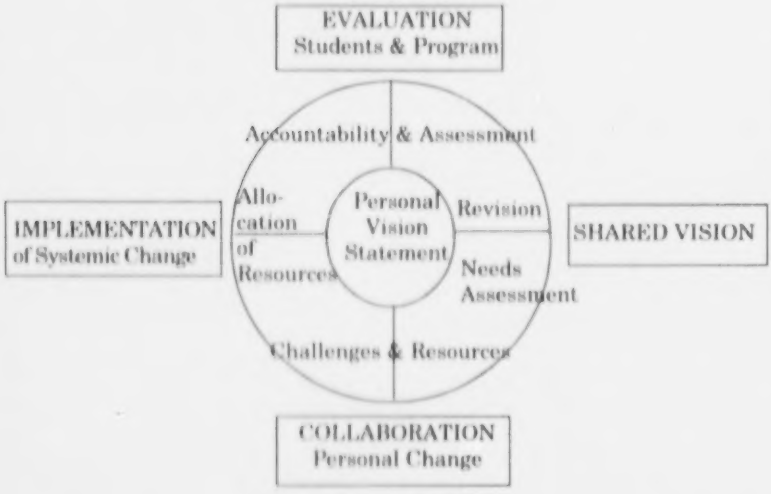
The following illustrates the results of the development process that

was used and provides encouragement for continued use of constructivist approaches. The student recounts the experience of developing and implementing the system that she and three others created.

Initial discussions were intense as everyone tried to collectively make sense of shared learning experiences over the year. There were four in the group. We had spent the year together learning about bold, socially responsible leadership. The purpose was clear. The team now needed to create an assessment system that reflected its collective learning and was to be used to evaluate oneself and each other.

It began by creating a visual that would include components of what we agreed were essential to educational reform. We called it a "Leadership Skills Mandala," using the circle to illustrate the cyclical nature of change (see Figure 1).

Figure 1
Leadership Skills Mandala



At the core is the "personal vision," a statement of one's individual beliefs and commitments about students, learning, and educational reform. Intense debates ensued over the differences between a mission and vision. Through that debate we clarified our thinking not only about the language but what is more important about what the team's values. The discussion took place over several meetings, trying to get consensus

on what seemed like a small part of the whole. We began to get anxious about the amount of time elapsed as the deadline drew near. Each agreed to write their *personal* vision and that became the first page of the personal portfolio. We then quickly came to agreement on the other components of educational reform; shared vision, collaboration, implementation, and evaluation. The internal parts of the mandala also fell quickly into place as steps needed to accomplish each reform component.

In retrospect, the amount of time at the beginning of the process was extremely valuable. We were able to build a framework with the Mandala that gave a structure to the process. The in-depth discussions gave both collective and individual meanings to the components. Once the Mandala was in place to use as the framework, the team was able to create individual portfolios, each adding their own physical evidence reflecting one's individual leadership experiences over the year.

There was a commitment to make the assessment a "real world" experience. We created a situation similar to applying for an administrative position as a leader in a school or district committed to educational reform. Besides the portfolio, we developed a list of interview questions that could be asked in an interview for an administrative position that required "bold, socially responsible leadership." The questions reflected the components of the mandala; beginning with a question regarding a personal vision as an educational leader. Other questions included how to create a shared vision, shared participation, commitment and responsibility, issues around change and implementation, assessment and accountability.

Discussions about which questions to ask and how to word them clarified what we valued. We realized in discussions what we truly valued had to be assessed. In the year-long program, the issue of diversity was the backdrop for everything we had learned. As a result, we added an interview question to address the issue of diversity even though it was not part of the Mandala.

The team realized it could not have questions without a criterion with which to assess the responses. It was with this understanding that we developed a rubric to use as criteria for each interview question (see Figure 2). This was when the assessment tool consciously became a learning tool. What did we value in a vision statement? What are the essential elements of systemic change? What does collaboration look like? What does diversity mean to us? It was in coming to agreement about these and similar questions that our theory became cemented by practice. Collaboration, as we experienced it, was what we needed to do to complete this assignment. Our definition of diversity was the team members, diverse in gender, ethnicity, age, and sexual orientation,

united by a common purpose. The program evaluation rubric (see Figure 2) defined the skills we were using in the process of developing the assessment system. Theory became practice in each step.

Figure 2
Sample Interview Question Rubric

	Personal Mission	Steps To Create Schoolwide Mission	Empowering Learning Community
1.	Response is strongly student centered. Belief that all children can learn is articulately stated. Celebrates diversity. Articulates multiple elements of collaboration.. Articulates high expectations of self, students, parents and staff.	Collaboration is integrated and articulated as part of every step. Creates emotionally safe environment. Defines shared values. Mutual respect is part of the culture. Defines learning community including all stakeholders.	Provides for a system of shared governance and decision making that includes staff, students, parents and community. Provides learning opportunities that focus on best practices. Ensures equal access to information. Creates extensive time for collaboration. Encourage taking risks to improve student learning. Create a structure that provides positive recognition from a variety of sources.
2.	Response is student centered. Belief that all children can learn is stated. Appreciates diversity. Articulates some elements of collaboration. Articulates need for high expectations.	Collaboration is integrated and articulated. Safe environment. Defines shared values. Mutual respect is part of the culture. Defines learning community.	Provides for a system of shared governance. Provide learning opportunities that include best practices. Ensures access to information. Time for collaboration. Safe to take risks to improve student learning. Create a structure that provides positive recognition.

(Figure 2 continued on next page)

Figure 2 Continued

	Personal Mission	Steps To Create Schoolwide Mission	Empowering Learning Community
3.	Response discusses students. Belief that all children can learn is stated. Acknowledges diversity. Articulates few elements of collaboration. Expectations are vague.	Discusses role of collaboration, school culture and environment, shared values and learning community.	Includes some decision making by staff. Provide staff development. Attempts are made to share information. Time for collaboration is sporadic and/or not part of contract day. Principal provides some positive recognition.
4.	Students are minimally mentioned as part of the vision. Maintains some forms of tracking. Minimally addresses diversity. Uses top down management. Has different expectations for different groups of people.	Minimally discusses role of collaboration, school culture and environment, shared values and of learning community.	Minimal decision making by staff. Minimal staff development, information sharing, collaboration time, or recognition of efforts.

On the assessment day, the culminating activity was to implement the assessment system we developed. The performance assessment would include applying for a job that involved each presenting their portfolios, visions and responding to the "interview" questions. The team developed a rubric evaluation form to receive comments from faculty from the Department of Educational Leadership and each other.

When we finished each had experienced a performance assessment with clearly articulated criteria that we had created. We not only felt successful, but were committed to helping create similar experiences for students in the schools in which we would eventually work.

Evaluation of Student Assessment Systems

The evaluation of the student-developed leadership assessment systems was a multifaceted effort. Students initially evaluated their work while in development. Teams spend over six hours of class time but countless more hours between class sessions. The instructor reviewed draft plans in several areas. This included analyzing the teams' proposed purposes, activities and assessment instruments. The instructor would challenge underlying assumptions of purposes and effectiveness of activities to assess leadership domains. Student teams also presented their work to each other for critique and comments. The data received was used to create final plans.

Assessing the effectiveness of each plan involved student team members and outside evaluators. All systems included peer assessment with written and verbal feedback. Practicing administrators and faculty of the Department of Educational Administration also participated in the assessment activities. They assumed evaluators' roles in the process of implementing the teams' plans. Along with student team members, they provided written and verbal feedback to the individual students and overall comments of the system.

Challenges and Findings

Apparent in the description provided by this group is that the constructivist process that students followed resulted in an assessment with significant meaning for them. In addition, the criteria they developed not only reflected their own perspectives but they also imbedded the California state competencies and the domains of national organizations. This is significant because they made no conscious effort to incorporate these into their "Mandala."

An important ingredient in the CSUH Educational Leadership program is the alignment of student experiences with the core values of the department: democratic collaboration, equity/diversity, critical inquiry, continuous improvement, and bold, socially-responsible leadership. The assessment system presented in the foregoing description clearly bridges the experiences of the students with the core values.

The assessment system describes how students were able to make meaning of their learning opportunities and apply that learning both collectively and individually. The constructivist approach challenged students to identify their own professional strengths, values, and behaviors.

Challenges remain to be explored and issues still exist. Some competencies are more easy to "measure" in this type of system. The examination of values and beliefs are evident but what is less rigorous is their measurement of application in a school setting. For example, the "instructional leadership" competency was displayed through having students verbalize their knowledge by answering questions. This approach did not result in evidence of ability to apply the knowledge. Students did document experiences during their fieldwork and internship as evidence of application, but even this does not speak to the quality of the experiences.

Another issue to be resolved in the future is that students focused on competencies of importance to team members. Other areas were not assessed or were examined only marginally. The degree of importance of all competencies in the educational leadership field comes into question.

While these examples speak to apparent shortcomings of the assessment processes used, they do not speak to the any inherent weaknesses in using a constructivist approach. On the contrary, it seems evident that this approach proved to be successful in having students develop meaning and purpose of the assessment process.

The results of these experiences point to preliminary conclusions about the assessment of students of educational leadership:

1. Constructivist learning should play a part in the development of some aspects of the system of assessment;
2. Multiple approaches are needed in addition to student-developed systems;
3. Opportunities for application of competencies in authentic settings is critical; and
4. Measures of quality of learning should be developed to assess experiences.

The assessment of educational leadership capacity is not an easy task. Such an assessment is not a terminal activity to be put into a portfolio and forgotten. Using principles of constructivist theory and authentic assessment approaches can serve to improve the process. Students engaged in developing the means to assess their leadership abilities learn reflective practices, "sense making," and other techniques that can become lifelong skills. Students engaged in these approaches learn to collaborate and refine their own values, and belief systems. The benefits of the marriage between constructivist principles and authentic assessment approaches provide promise in measuring educational leadership capacity.

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Book Review:

Who Will Save Our Schools?
Teachers as Constructivist Leaders
by Linda Lambert, Michelle Collay, Mary E. Dietz, Karen Kent, & Anna Ershler Richert
Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, 1996
ISBN 0-8039-6462-5; 0-0839-6463-3 (paper)

Reviewed by Rita King
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Does the lack of deep educational change sometimes seem like the sound of one hand clapping in our world of education? Could that concern come about because too many times there is a disconnection between what is happening in the name of reform and the changing demographics and needs of students? *Who Will Save Our Schools?* is an important book because it explores one gaping black hole that exists in moving the educational reform agenda forward. Linda Lambert, Michelle Collay, Mary E. Dietz, Karen Kent, and Anna Ershler Richert seek to reframe the traditional view of leadership which often is seen as a position or role. The authors define constructivist leadership as "the reciprocal processes that enable participants in a community to construct meanings that lead toward a shared purpose of schooling" (Lambert *et al.*, 1995), which are the opportunities for participatory learning that exist among those in a school culture.

There are two interwoven threads in this work. First is the dynamism, interdependence, and complexity of bringing forth constructivist leadership. Second is the recognition that no deep-rooted, far-reaching

forms of systemic change in schools will ever occur without placing the focus on the classroom teacher as a constructivist leader. The authors maintain that preserving an image of certainty in school organizations "can strangle a school's capacity for change" (p. 7).

The book is written for many audiences—those who work with the professional development of teachers as well as for teachers themselves, school and district administrators, policymakers, and teacher educators. Each chapter focuses on inter-related themes that include human learning and development, learning communities, constructivist leadership, and systemic change. The chapters speak to each theme from various vantage points while connecting the themes to one another. They are explored in depth and suggest to the reader directions for how to achieve educational reforms so that schools can be rescued from their current crises. The book includes considerable attention to the process of constructivism and how learners alter their existing mental models to make connections between prior learning and new learning. Perspectives which the authors explore about brain development suggest that humans have the ability to achieve in greater depth when they are producing that development through learning communities. A systemic change model emerges that includes both short-term and long-term adaptations.

The authors develop and examine the concept of moral communities. They define them as "communities in which the central purpose is focused on core values that cherish and care about the learning and development of its members" (p. 12). These may be learning communities, professional communities, or school communities.

An important challenge in the book is that of leading through inspiration, which requires educators literally to alter the contexts that currently exist in schools. The authors advocate that since the problems and dilemmas that persist in schools are systemic, so are the solutions. They propose that there needs to be a major shift in policies as well as structures that govern educational systems. That premise becomes the backdrop for recommending a new frame for the structure of schools, in which there is a marked renewal of teacher preparation and credentialing efforts that include time teaching the skills of inquiry and reflection, advanced curriculum and assessment development, leadership studies, and creating an agenda of reform.

The consequence of creating this systemic change model is probably the most innovative, controversial, and possibly the most ambitious recommendation of the book. There is a proposal for the establishment of a Professional Leadership Development Preparation Tier for teachers that would establish a more comprehensive, professional teacher com-

munity. The recommendation suggests that once this system has evolved, the role of administration then could be refocused onto areas such as law, finance, policy, and community relations. It states that schools then could be led by leadership teams of teachers with perhaps one designated as principal teacher.

One might question why it would be wise to suggest that the field of educational administration turn away from a focus on academic leadership and return to a smaller notion of functional management. It has taken more than a decade of reform to integrate educational leadership into programs for administrator preparation. This idea, however, is only one of several policy reform recommendations and shifts in structures made by the authors that supports constructivist teacher leadership.

Each idea is provocative. Each one deserves consideration. The book is one that won't provide the specifics for how to implement these changes, but it touches some essential concerns and can begin a conversation about new collaborative models for examining the factors that make schools "better able to respond not only to change but also to the people whom they are designed to serve" (p. 168).

While *Who Will Save Our Schools?* is a hopeful book, it is not filled with platitudes. The entire work is refreshing, thoughtfully organized, and skillfully articulated. It is important reading for persons working to build leadership capacity of emerging administrators. Perhaps it is the sound of both hands clapping—that applause that is heard from bringing forth teachers to work as constructivist leaders in the educational reform efforts by creating dynamic systems of compelling collaboration, producing powerful student learning, and initiating true moral community building.

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While ***Educational Leadership and Administration*** accepts and publishes articles on topics other than the theme for the year, prospective contributors are encouraged to consider the focus for the year. This coming year's theme for the American Educational Research Association (AERA) centers on "Diversity and Citizenship in Multicultural Societies." Because of the many possibilities this topic poses and its implications and challenges for educational administration, we have decided to align the focus of the 1998 issue of ***Educational Leadership and Administration*** to AERA's theme. How do we address such topics as diversity, classism, culture, and gender and most importantly, how do we structure our educational administration programs to prepare and to train leaders who possess the skills, knowledge, and courage to confront these issues? While we will consider articles on topics other than the focus for the year, we encourage prospective contributors to reflect on and consider this compelling theme. In addition to articles, ***Educational Leadership and Administration*** accepts a limited number of book reviews of interest to professors of educational administration.

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